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SHALL AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES ADOPT THE BRITISH SYSTEM OF DEBATING?*

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OXFORD, in its recent tour of American universities, including Bates, Swarthmore, Columbia, Yale, Harvard, Princeton, and the University of Pennsylvania, followed more or less the British or parliamentary system as exemplified in debates in the Oxford Union. At Princeton, Swarthmore, and Yale, the teams were split, with one Englishman on the American side, and one American on the British team. Only Bates retained the traditional judges. At every school the audience voted on the merits of the question.

The Oxford Union Society, from whose members the team in America was selected, is a literary-social club founded a century ago, the most important and famous of the numerous Oxonian societies; it includes several hundred students from the twenty-odd colleges. The Union, with the presiding officer's dais, the benches for the government and the opposition, the party leaders and the "aye" and "no" exits, duplicates the House of Commons. Each of the four speakers for the evening is assigned to the side that

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represents his convictions. He wears evening dress and takes his subject seriously. With little or no reference to his colleague he gives his individual argument, usually some fifteen minutes long. If he persists, no bell shuts him off. A polite note from the secretary may remind him of the time. He follows no formal brief, reproduces no carefully wrought manuscript. The constant heckling may inspire him to unexpected power in argument. He tries to be natural, informal, conversational; he scores with his wit, invective, and persuasiveness, more than with statistics and frowning evidence. No stiff-necked judges pass on the "merits of the debate." The aim is to establish conviction rather than to gain a technical decision; to arrive at the truth rather than to play a game. An open forum, with perhaps fifteen or twenty speeches from the floor, follows. Finally, not long before midnight, the three or four hundred members divide and vote on the merits of the question, usually a problem of national or international policy. Thus the British system is a judgeless, open forum, parliamentary discussion rather than a competitive sport,—not entirely dissimilar to the open forum debates with which American universities of the Middle West have experimented. In his purpose, style, and delivery the Oxford collegian thus differs sharply from the conventional American debater.

A number of American colleges, Swarthmore, for example, have adopted the Oxford plan. A committee, appointed by the debating association of the colleges of Pennsylvania, has recently recommended that the institutions represented "should endeavor to interest their students in the open forum type of debate, to diminish the emphasis on debate as a sport," and "to hold this year, if possible, one intercollegiate debate" of the parliamentary or British type. Several colleges in Pennsylvania, according to Professor White of Washington and Jefferson, have tried this plan "with success." Is this movement merely the desire to seek after some new thing in college forensics? Or does the British plan have sound educational merits that justify its general adoption? (1) Will the adoption of the British system mean a loss of collegiate interest in debating? (2) Will the students who follow this judgeless method submit to the thorough preparation characteristic of the conventional American debate? Will they continue to respect sound reasoning based upon broad and exact

knowledge of the question? (3) Under the British system will they develop more ardent convictions? (4) Will they have a less artificial and a more attractive forensic style? (5) Will they argue with more conversational ease and directness?

The substitution of the Oxford plan for the familiar practice would probably result in less undergraduate enthusiasm for the art of debate. The British system proposes to discuss a question on its merits and to foster genuine conviction. To secure this laudable end, the Oxonian logically eliminates competition. Debating as a game, with time-limits, judges, team-work, and debating strategy, is regarded as inconsistent with the sincere and effective presentation of individual belief. Accordingly the judges, however few or many, are banished. The listener, in order that he may be free and unhampered in his search for truth, must avoid thinking in terms of a "team," whether it represents his literary society, his class, or his school. Partisanship colors his judgment and destroys the spirit of the discussion. Doubly to ensure unbiased attention to the issues, teams should be "mixed," as the Oxford teams in America were "mixed." Team work, too, because it cramps the expression of the individual and sometimes apparently commits the speaker to team sentiments inconsistent with his beliefs, must be avoided. Consistency in this matter calls for two speakers rather than three, and one rather than two. Now it is clear that you cannot have a real football game with no teams, no judges, no goal posts. It is equally clear that you cannot have a debating contest after you have deliberately scrapped the machinery. British universities have no such contests. Under such conditions I fail to see why two universities should have strong incentive to get together. With school spirit eliminated, with no "home" or "visiting" teams (mind you, they should be so arranged that each "team" is made up of one visitor and one home debater), with the sport element conscientiously suppressed, it is hard to conceive of audiences in considerable numbers following the debates year after year, and especially hard to conceive of debaters undergoing that thorough preparation peculiar to the American debate.

"The impetus to true conviction," say the advocates of the parliamentary type, "will be sufficient to call out the best student minds and to guarantee at least as complete preparation as now

takes place." It is to be doubted whether discussion for the mere sake of setting forth opinion will attract numbers of students or lead them to undergo that vigorous preparation made by the debater who is out to win.

The responsibility is upon those who would banish judging and the other elements of contest debating, to make clear that a substitute motive to secure prolonged and intensive training would be provided. Mere ambition to utter the truth and discomfit the rival would scarcely be a dependable spur. Election to an honorary society, the opportunity of the men to match wits with the women of a neighboring school, the prospect under a skilled chairman of reply to questions from the floor, the stimulus of a discussion with speakers from a British university,—such motives would occasionally draw a crowd and call forth fine debating energy. Such motives, of course, are exceptionable.

To point out that the Oxford Union, without judges and competitive discussion, is the "greatest debating society in the world," is insufficient. The Oxonian, with his intellectual traditions and keen interest in the well-being of the Empire, finds satisfaction in mounting the platform, even though no judges appear. Politics to him is as important as cricket or Henley. Oxford is at the heart of the Empire. Over his tea he settles the fate of Ghandi; his Thursday night debate is merely a continuation of his dinner conversation. Later he will probably enter parliament—as did Gladstone, Salisbury, Birkenhead, and many others whose portraits line the Union walls. Under the parliamentary plan of election he may stand for any English or Scotch constituency. You cannot transfer to the American student this practical Oxford motive for debate any more than you can transfer the incommunicable spirit of Balliol to an American college. To assume that the peculiar conditions which produce exceptional debaters at England's oldest university can at present be duplicated in the American college is of course absurd. Until an equivalent incentive can be demonstrated, those of us who are associated with institutions in which the debating spirit is still glowing will continue to incline toward the contest feature.

The discussion above assumes that American debating is fairly successful in securing proper training and in attracting interested audiences. As a matter of fact, critics point to the decadence of

student debates at many of our universities. Therefore it is necessary, in passing to remind ourselves of the facts, ample proof for which may be found in recent files of the *Gavel* and other forensic journals: that debating for a decision has beyond question raised the standard of forensics set by the older college literary societies; that audiences recently attending the more important contests have been at least as large as those of fifteen or twenty years ago; that competition for teams has been keen enough to draw out large numbers of representative university men; that scores and scores of intercollegiate contests are held annually and that the number is growing; that honorary debating fraternities have expanded and have demonstrated their vitality; that governors, prominent educators, and justices of higher courts serve as judges and give highest recognition of the sport; that in many educational quarters the debating contest, rightly or wrongly, has been regarded as a gage of the intellectual efficiency of the college; finally, that the argumentative sport has spurred on the student to that educational discipline and mental activity for which, it is argued, the liberal college chiefly exists.

Does the English debater undergo the same systematic and rigid preparation? As he discusses his problem from the platform, does he know his subject as does the American? According to the leaders of the Oxford Union, the debater may "spend a few hours, at most a few days," in his training for the discussion. The actual occasion is one for facility rather than for penetrability. It is not too much to say that the broad and sound preparation characteristic of American debating is unknown at Oxford. The responsibility, again, is upon those who would establish this latter system to show that this thoroughness would not be sacrificed.

Even, however, if we grant that debating has so-called educational values and that an adequate substitute for the "sport" or "game" image may be provided, we are confronted with the familiar indictment made by Roosevelt and others that it is impossible to retain the competitive character of debating and at the same time to engage in a "sincere discussion of public questions." Debating, it is charged, produces demagogues and sophists. A somewhat similar charge is that its atmosphere is that of fighting feudalism rather than that of modern science with its dispassionate investigation of truth, its constantly corrected judgments, and its

coöperative spirit.[1] We want, it is claimed, not the legal but the scientific attitude. In reply it should be said, in the first place, that teachers of rhetoric settled generations ago the principle that debaters must not divorce debating from ethics, and that speakers must argue in accordance with their convictions. Horace Mann, in a letter dated June 16, 1851, and printed in many an old debating handbook, wrote: "Adopt that side [of the argument] which judgment and conscience assure you to be right." Again, it needs little investigation to make clear that undergraduates have few settled convictions in regard to debate problems. With good conscience they may take either side. Furthermore, despite frequent assertions to the contrary, debaters do investigate both sides and do appreciate the force of the opposing arguments. Again, the debater, although an artist, through his careful analysis, weighing of the problem, sifting of issues, and accumulation of evidence, displays the temper and method of the scientist. Both are dedicated to the "ramifying search for truth." The disputant, moreover, with his conscience and scientific spirit, also recognizes that his conclusions are only tentative, indeed that fresh truth over night may lead to a complete revision of his judgment. He would agree that each debate is, after all, only a step in the broad experiment to arrive at a stable conclusion, and that four or six speakers do not pretend to speak *ex cathedra*. Furthermore, like the scientist, the debater recognizes the coöperative element in discussion. He does more than to convince an audience; he thinks and speaks with those hearers. The result is a social discussion and a social decision. Like the scientist, too, he learns to clarify and to arrange, and to ignore no part of the field of investigation. Hence is logical justification for pitting team against team. Such team work, it should be added, need not be at the expense of that fine individualism of the Oxonian who, like Emerson's scholar, "learns to detect the gleam of light which flashes across his mind from within more than the lustre of firmament of bards and sages." In general, the disposition to separate sharply the debating from the scientific attitude is unjustified. These considerations all indicate that the debating game properly played should not necessarily

[1] H. A. Overstreet, "Reason and the Fight Image," *New Republic*, Vol. 33:94-7, December 20, 1922.

produce sophists, archaic militarists, or unscientific investigators.

Two other advantages claimed for the British system are that it makes for better style and for better delivery. The English debating style is philosophical and literary, just as ours is practical and legal. The differences, quite pronounced, are due not so much to contrasted debating systems as to markedly differing national experience and training. The Englishman has behind him his classical schooling, his intimacy with Greek and Roman orators, and his own rich literature and culture. His style, therefore, is comparatively dignified, original, at times even poetic. The first Oxford speaker in debate with Bates in September showed familiarity with Lincoln, Walt Whitman, Barrie, Plato, Arnold, Huxley, Browning, the Bible, and other sources. The style was idiomatic, spontaneous, unaffected. Such phrasing and allusion would for an American be pedantry. Our undergraduate texts are standard works on economics, statistical abstracts, speeches of Lincoln and Roosevelt. Our collegiate style, in as far as it is original and virile, is the expression of our peculiar political and educational inheritance. Our faith in a rigid constitution, our exaltation of the Supreme Court, explain sufficiently the character and popularity of our judicial style of debate. And for many a year we are not likely to have done with this practical or judicial spirit. Even if our colleges should adopt the British debate formula, our speakers will continue to echo the language of Hamilton and Lincoln rather than that of Burke or Morley.

Certainly much improvement needs to be made in this matter of style. We can break with the extreme rigidity that is neither American nor literary. More and more we must establish an alliance between literature, philosophy, and argument. We may work out a more spontaneous style without the necessity of our reproducing or imitating the Oxford Union method and style of discussion. The problem is of course one of revising the college curriculum rather than that of imposing a "literary" style on the debater.

In delivery, too, we may take a leaf from the example of Oxford. We must admit that our debaters, racing against time, "neglect the graces of public speech—the play of personality." The Oxford man, let us candidly agree, is more at home before his audience than is the American. The Oxonian takes time on the plat-

form to reflect, to cultivate delightful informality and even intimacy with his auditors. Again, however, the social and political background may explain somewhat the difference. To get the proper accent and inflection, our Yankee would need also to import the British cabinet system of government, the spirit of Hyde Park, the experience with popular judgment. Surely, though, we can overhaul our performance so that our speakers shall be at least human, conversational, and within limits even humorous. To this end we may have only two speakers on a side, and merge the rebuttals into lengthened main speeches. At the Oxford-Bates debate in September the rebuttals were eliminated and the main speeches, by agreement, were unlimited in length. Each speaker used more than thirty minutes. The audience gave close attention until the final speaker stopped at eleven-thirty o'clock. The delivery of the home team was in several respects superior to that of previous Bates teams. Let us also encourage questions from the floor, attach a forum, and call for a popular vote on the merits of the question. These things, I believe, can be done without the sacrifice of a compact, logical style, and the other virtues of our competitive debating.

In conclusion, our traditional debate has a value too great to be disregarded. If the practice here and there has fallen upon evil times, the reason lies not in the mendacity of the speakers, the artificiality of the game, or the presence of the judges, but rather in the complexities,—or shall I say confusion?—of undergraduate life. A proper remedy for the ills of debating would seem to lie in adequate faculty supervision and guidance. This conclusion, I am aware, is trite, but it needs emphatic reaffirmation. Minimize excessive legalism. Establish an open forum. Penalize the unimaginative and dull delivery. Recall the debaters to a solid intellectual program. Resort only sparingly to the "twenty-four hour" contests. Make room for "discussion group" meetings. Finally, provide, in addition to the present debates, opportunities for exercises of the character suggested by the typical British discussions.

"SPEECH"

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AT OUR annual convention held in Chicago, December, 1921, I read a paper in which I questioned the use we are making of the word *speech* in the name of the National Association and in the name of the QUARTERLY. A committee was appointed to study the question raised and to report at the next meeting. At the recent meeting in New York this committee reported progress and asked to be continued; and the request was granted. It now seems advisable that this question of nomenclature should be put before all the members of the Association, not merely those who heard the discussion in Chicago, and in as tangible a form as the nature of the somewhat slippery problem permits.

A mere name can hardly be of first-class importance; but this question seems to be worthy of serious consideration. Strong objection was made to our original names, in which *public speaking* was the significant term; and high claims were made for the benefits to be derived from the new terms. Moreover, the vigorous objection made when it became known that the question was to be raised in 1921, and the somewhat excited discussion that developed at the convention, outside of the formal meeting more than in, indicated that the matter of names must have some real significance. At any rate, it has seemed to some that the word *speech*, adopted rather hastily in 1917, should be further considered. If we become convinced that the word is best, some uneasiness will have been allayed; if not, we shall wish to make changes as soon as convenient. Surely use through five years only has not committed us finally to these names for an organization that is to go on indefinitely.

I shall not repeat here all that I said in my over-long paper at Chicago, but shall set forth as much of it as seems especially pertinent at the present stage of the discussion. I believe we have reached a stage where the matter can be discussed without argumentativeness.

It is difficult to discuss the word *speech;* first, because it is an old, worn word of many meanings and shades of meanings, and, secondly, because we have been using it now for five years with a good deal of freedom. But as well as we can let us ask ourselves, What does *speech* mean? and especially, What, standing without context or modifiers, does it most strongly suggest?

Any large dictionary will give these meanings, along with others plainly not related to our work:

1. The faculty of uttering articulate sounds or words; of expressing thought by words or language. (As, Speech distinguishes man from animals.)
2. That which is spoken; that is, language.
3. A particular language; a dialect. (As, American speech.)
4. Talk, conversation. (Slightly archaic, is it not? As, They had speech together.)
5. A formal discourse, address, oration.

Meanings enough surely (and there are others) to cover all our needs! And yet would any one outside our little group use the word to refer to reading or dramatics? Or does the word, unmodified by so much as an *a*, suggest rhetoric, the art of persuasion? If you can answer these questions affirmatively, is there any *one* meaning of the word that seems to cover all our interests, reading, dramatics, voice training, speech correction, phonetics, public speaking?

It has been said in reply to this question, "Yes, the moment you admit that *speech* may be defined as the 'utterance of meaningful sounds,' you admit the whole case; all else follows." "This must be scanned." It would seem to follow that by our names for the Association and the QUARTERLY we are laying claim to all the meanings that have grown out of the word since it was first used by the Anglo-Saxons. The Professor of Speech then comes to "profess" all that is involved in language and literature. A large contract! Old Christopher Columbus, standing on Cat Island, or wherever he did stand, and taking possession of a hemisphere of which he had no knowledge, may have been magnificent, but also a little ridiculous. But what should we say of a modern Columbus who should to-day unfurl his banner and take possession of all the Americas with their teeming populations and industries? I do not wish to set up as Professor of Universal Knowledge, or

even of one of its main branches. More and more one little patch appalls me. This is not meant, let me add, as a jeer at those who now bear the title, Professor of Speech; for I do not think that any one of them wishes to press the view that *speech* is to be taken as meaning all that has grown out of its primary significance.

No, we had better get off that tack and come back to the question whether any one of the meanings of the word covers our field. That was the peculiar merit ascribed to it in 1917. But I shall leave the question here, for I have to answer, No. I do not speak with great confidence, for the question is baffling to one not a master of words.

If it be said that the word has enough meanings to cover all, we must remember that to use a word in two meanings at once is to commit an ambiguity; and while an ambiguity is not a criminal offense, we shall hardly wish to be ambiguous deliberately and officially.

What does this sentence, His speech was beautiful, mean to you? That his pronunciation, enunciation, voice quality, intonation, possibly his diction, were beautiful? Or that he made *a* beautiful speech? Lacking context or situation we cannot tell.

At the Chicago meeting I put forward tentatively the view that we do not use *speech* as referring to public speaking except with some modifier, such as *public* or *formal,* expressed or implied. We do not use *speech,* or *a speech* (which would usually be taken as referring to public speech,) or *your speech* (ambiguous without context or situation,) or *Webster's Fourth of March Speech;* but these are used of concrete instances. Do we, or did we until very recently, use *speech* as we use *oratory* or *public speaking?* A friend has submitted quotations which he believes prove that we do. It seems to me that in most of the instances, at least, the word *speech* refers, not to speech-making, but to an element, often language, which enters into speeches; and that some are instances of bad usage. To discuss all these instances adequately would call for an expert and consume most of the pages of this issue; but fortunately such discussion seems unnecessary just now. I will concede, for present purposes, that instances may be found in good writing; and proceed to stress points both more important and more tangible. The same friend, one of the original advocates of *speech,* has freely conceded, it may be said in passing, that the word in

our present usage is undoubtedly somewhat ambiguous.

The most pertinent question is, What does *speech*, standing without modifier or context as in "Teachers of Speech," most strongly suggest? Feeling that this question could be answered best by those who, while trained to a keen sense of words, are not accustomed to our special usage, I have submitted the terms *speech education* and *professor of speech* to many English scholars, trying to give no hint of my own position in regard to the expressions. Most, although having a good clue in the fact that the terms were submitted by a teacher of what they are apt to call "elocution and oratory," have been puzzled. Practically all have been surprised to learn that the terms were intended to cover our field. One said that if he should come across the title Professor of Speech in a college catalog, he should guess it referred to a teacher of phonetics.

It seems clear that, even if good usage can be shown to justify *speech* as a synonym for public speaking, still the word is used so much more commonly for phonetics, language, and kindred subjects that standing unmodified it strongly turns the mind toward these meanings, and these only.

It has occurred to me to look up *speech* in a small encyclopedia, the *Universal*. It actually has an article on the subject; and it says that speech is spoken language. It tells a bit about how sounds are produced, divides them into vowels and consonants, comments on the formation of words, and arrives at language; but it makes no reference to our other interests. The significance of this lies not in the authority of the work, but in the fact that it is a work giving the standard commonplaces on the subjects treated. *Britannica* has no article entitled Speech. The first index reference leads one into stammering, the next into phonetics, others to aphasia, somnambulism, speech centers, freedom of speech. "See also language." None leads to oratory or rhetoric.

A search through a large number of works that might be expected to use *speech* accurately and in an important way, indicates that it is rarely found important enough to note in indexes, certainly not in any generalized sense. The word is, however, used freely by writers on phonetics and kindred themes. And this brings me to a suggestion:

Would it not be most convenient to limit *speech* (as I believe we did until recently,) to "phonetics, phonology and speech correc-

tion"? I have a communication in which the circumlocution just quoted is repeated several times. That is awkward. Perhaps some related terms should be tucked in under *speech;* but is it not evident that we need a brief term to be used in a general but limited sense? Certainly I hear teachers interested in those branches using *speech* as a handy word, and without seeming consciousness that it has a broader or different significance. I can foresee an answer to that, but it does not militate against the contention that our Tillys and Merrys and Blantons are losing something by having the word spread over the whole field. The adoption of this suggestion would not, of course, bar the use of *speech* in other senses when modifiers or context make its use clear; as, public speech.

It is interesting to note that the able report on the "Teaching of English in England" uses *speech* as the equivalent of phonetics. (See p. 177 of the London edition, sec. 174.) On page 68, sec. 71, we read: "Speech training is intimately connected with, and is, indeed, included in, training in oral expression." It has been called to my attention that at p. 145, sec. 145, a contrary usage is indicated: "Training in speech is, we believe, too much neglected in all types of schools. . . . Debates, brief lectures by students upon subjects chosen by themselves, the telling of stories," etc. (The whole passage is quoted in the QUARTERLY for November, at p. 398.) It hardly seems that this more casual use can stand against the defining statement quoted from p. 68; but if so, could we have better evidence of the slipperiness of our word. Surely it is a vain thing for safety! If in the same report it can stand in one place for all our works, in another for phonetics only, and in yet another it can be described, in precise terms, as a part only of oral expression, then we have something as weird as the non-Euclidean geometry, which upsets all our fondled maxims, even that the whole is greater than a part thereof.

This much seems clear: that whatever may be said to show that *speech* may be used, without absolute violation of its possible meaning, as a general term for our whole field, nevertheless the names we are using do emphasize, in the minds of the public we are trying to impress correctly and favorably, one single phase of our work, and fail to suggest reading, dramatic and public speaking, particularly that part of public speaking that is well called

rhetoric,—speech construction and composition with a view to interest and persuasion. These names have in effect the same fault as the discarded names,—lack of comprehensiveness; and have the same additional fault of ambiguity.

A good deal was made at the Chicago meeting referred to, of the fact that Dr. Paul Shorey, in a paper immediately preceding mine, used the term *speech* several times. It seemed to me that Dr. Shorey did no more than adopt courteously the word of his hosts. I noted that once he used the word *speech,* hesitated as if not satisfied, and then added "and rhetoric." But since the opinion of this distinguishel language scholar seemed important, I ventured to write Dr. Shorey, putting the situation in which we find ourselves, with our varied interests, as fairly as I could, and adding briefly my own objections to our names. He replied:

"Your own letter seems to me to cover the grounds of your questions completely, but since you desire my opinion I will give it. My first impression was that the title 'Professor of Speech' or 'Department of Speech' was both a little ambiguous and a little quaint. And I think I intended quotation marks in my voice as I used it."

Dr. Shorey goes on to say that, in consideration of the difficulties of the case, he can think of no better brief term, and he suggests that *speech* may be treated as a translation of the Greek *logos,* although there is no equivalent for that word in English. I wonder if there was not a twinkle in the Doctor's eye at that point. At any rate, since most of us remember of *logos* only that it is the term translated *word* in the first chapter of St. John's Gospel, we shall feel more terrified than ever by the possibilities of *speech.*

Dr. Shorey thinks, in brief, that we can "get away with" *speech.* I do not question that. Nobody will stop us; injunctions will not issue against our using such terms as we like. As. Dr. Shorey says, "I do not think the ambiguity or the oddity will trouble the public much." But he does not know, of course, that it is precisely the public, our public, we were trying to impress favorably when we changed our names. Among ourselves any name would do.

Dr. Shorey also offers the comfort that some departments have still more quaint names. "We have or had a department of ecclesiastical sociology in the University of Chicago. That was because

we had an able sociologist who wanted to wear his rue with a difference. But the title is surely more quaint and odd than 'professor of speech' could ever be." Since some advocates of *speech* have made the same argument—that others have worse names—it is well to point out that this is not a departmental question, a distinction naturally enough overlooked by one giving the problem but passing consideration. Departments and individuals may take what titles they please; but we are considering names for our association and its publication. There is small comfort for us, in any case, in the fact that others have names still more "quaint and odd."

The matter comes to this in my mind: (1) There is at least grave doubt whether or not our present usage of *speech* is correct. But if it can be shown that there is some meaning of the word which can be said reasonably to cover our field, without covering altogether too much, still (2) it seems clear that the word is dangerously ambiguous, and (3) our names do actually serve to stress one part of our work and to belittle other parts. It is quite possible for a word to be justifiable on narrow grounds of correctness, and yet to be unfortunate. At best, can our names be considered satisfactory? As a matter of fact, practically all who have strongly advocated them have admitted that they do not satisfy. The claim is that we can do no better. Must we rest content with names that satisfy hardly any and that are distinctly objectionable to many? Should we not at least make an effort to find a better solution of the problem?

One hope in writing this is that some member of the Association may have an inspiration. Suggestions will be welcomed by the Committee. It has been the weakness of the opposition to the present names that no substitutes have been put forward. He who objects is usually, though not always justly, expected to offer something better. It is fair to say in this case that the objectors are not the innovators. *Speech* is an innovation. Nevertheless, a suggestion has been made and has some support in the Committee. I am aware that some who have come with me so far will drop out when I come to a specific proposal; but we must remember that no entirely satisfactory name is likely to be found. As a prominent advocate of *speech* has said, "No one likes *speech* at first." No worse can be said of the suggestion below. I wish to add that I

have no personal pride in the suggestion, for it is not my invention; but after considering it for two years I believe this is the best that has yet been made, all views and interests being considered. It is, of course, a compromise.

The proposal is, then, that we add *rhetoric* to our names. We should then have, *The National Association of Teachers of Speech and Rhetoric* and *The Quarterly Journal of Speech and Rhetoric.* It is further suggested that subtitles be added to the name of the QUARTERLY. Just what they should be is a detail to be worked out. The title page of the QUARTERLY would then bear something like this:

THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH AND RHETORIC

Public Speaking Speech Correction Dramatic Art
History of Oratory Voice Training Oral Reading
Debate Phonetics

This could be simplified to advantage. It may be pointed out that a leading advocate of *speech* finds subtitles useful on his departmental letterheads, and that Mr. Immel finds them desirable in advertising the QUARTERLY. I have heard no objection to their use as suggested.

It will be said of *rhetoric* that it is used still by some teachers of English. Well, most of them have given it up; chiefly, I am guessing, because they do not think it sufficiently emphasizes their favorite work, literature. They cannot object if we take the word up and restore its original meaning. No one can deny that, whoever else teaches rhetoric, we do teach it, in its ancient and most honorable sense, fixed upon it by Aristotle, the art of persuasion. Traditionally the word refers primarily to spoken discourse; and in connection with the word *speech* it should be clear that we are thinking of spoken discourse. We believe, too, that we have a considerable share in teaching rhetoric in its more modern sense.

It will be said that *rhetoric* has some bad connotations. No doubt; but we have many other good words, and especially in our field, as *elocution* and *oratory,* and as speech soon will have, for it already being taken up by the very people who have made *elocution* a by-word. That is something we cannot prevent. On the other hand, *rhetoric* is a word with a long and, on the whole, an honorable history. It is associated with such mighty names as Aristotle and Quintilian, to say nothing of notable modern scholars

and philosophers. It is our word, a traditional family name.

Does some inveterate "speecher" say the names would be tautological? Well, tautology is a mild offense compared with ambiguity. Is not our language full of standard phrases in which one word repeats in part the meaning of another, yet each stresses a different phase of thought? But the tautology is a matter of opinion. To one who sees *speech* as I do there is not enough repetition to deserve the condemnation of tautology. Of course, if Aristotle should return and declare that *rhetoric* is broad enough to cover all, I should be greatly abashed, and could only murmur that I am compromising; but he won't.

"But," it may be said, "you are giving up your objections to *speech;* you are inconsistent." One has to be inconsistent when one compromises. But are not the most serious objections to *speech* alone met? The balance of emphasis is restored, and the likelihood of misunderstanding is much lessened. Speech and Rhetoric. Does not each word tend to limit and explain the other? At any rate, it would seem that the title page proposed, subtitles and all, would convey a clear and correct idea.

The proposal seems to present a possible ground where "speechers" and "speechifiers" may meet in peace. It is put forward in the hope that the defenders of the present names will be willing to accept this, or a possible better, means of redressing the balance of emphasis. Surely few, however devoted to other phases of our work, wish to belittle the great part of rhetoric; especially at a time when we have reason to expect important developments in that historic branch of knowledge.

We should remember, before rejecting any suggestion, that no altogether satisfactory solution is likely to be found; and that widely divergent opinions are held, making compromise good policy. How the votes would fall as between those who like and those who do not like the present names, I have no idea. It is to be hoped we shall not have to rest the matter upon a close vote. At any rate, unless some better suggestion is made, the above proposal will probably go before the next convention, either as a majority or a minority report of the Committee. In the meantime, I hope there will be further discussion in the QUARTERLY; and I should be happy, as a member of the Committee, to receive communications on the subject.

RESEARCH

HERBERT A. WICHELNS
New York University

"Research is simply a determined effort, by sound methods, to find out the truth about any subject." Thus Professor Winans in *The Quarterly* of July, 1915, in a defense of research which concluded "It is coming, anyhow." Research has come, in spite of those of little faith. It is the business of the research committee to prevent its coming "anyhow"—haphazardly—and to guide it into the channels of greatest effectiveness. We cannot, of course, hope to lay down a method for the guidance of individuals in their investigations; every one must make his own mistakes—and we are busy making ours. The methodology of individual scholarship is outside the committee's province; our contribution, as a committee, to the effectiveness of scholarship, must be in co-operation. The committee regards itself as a clearing house of information and opinion, as a catalogue of things not yet published and in the hands of the conventional librarian. We hope primarily to prevent duplication of labor by making known what is "in process" and to stimulate undertakings by making known the felt needs of the Association. Hence our first task was a general circular covering these two aspects of our work. The demands of the printer, however, prevent our making more than a tentative report at this time.

The few items listed below represent studies available in print, or finished but not published, or unfinished; it is inserted now only as a specimen, chosen at random, of the current work of the profession.

Specific suggestions for new work have been listed in goodly number in the last number of THE JOURNAL, together with references to yet other lists. Returns from the general circular are not yet in hand in such number that we can summarize the views of the Association on our needs for the future.

Although we are not yet ready to speak of the direction of research in general, it seems time to discuss the coöperative ventures

which should be the province of the research committee as such. The suggestions here to be made concern neither the fundamentals of research nor the principles of organization of graduate study. The former has been admirably handled in Professor Merry's paper as chairman of the committee on research (in *The Journal* for April, 1921); the latter by Professor Drummond (in *The Journal* for April, 1923). The principal undertaking of the committee ought to be coöperative: it should do what no one man can do alone. A comprehensive bibliography of the entire field is what we principally lack; such a bibliography, or series of bibliographies, would be an indispensable instrument in historical investigations, and a useful instrument in experimental studies, which inevitably begin with a historical survey—unless they presuppose one. Not the least valuable element of such bibliographies would be their classifications. It is recognized, of course, that such a work, if completed, would not long be completely up-to-date, but the board of assistant editors and the research committee will exist to supply current information; and the foundations of much of our work date back —far back. The suggestion here made, of course, is not a new one. It has been in the minds of many of us for some time; it is repeated, with the suggestion of a good model in Mr. Drummond's recent article; and there is encouragement in this: that Gayley and Scott's *Methods and Materials in the Study of Criticism* is, after twenty years, still a useful, indeed an indispensable work.

I make no apology for proposing, as a principal effort by the research committee, the humdrum task of bibliography; it is the groundwork of all study, and unless we can supply ourselves with that, we can have little assurance that a superstructure of our own rearing will stand. Accordingly, I ask all those who have at command bibliographies of any of our fields, to communicate with me, indicating the scope and date of the work, the extent of the classifications, and the approximate total entries. It is far too soon, of course, to consider the ways and means of publication; but it is the general experience of scholars that good works do make their way into print; and a work which would be a tool to all students in our various fields might well expect to see the light as soon as ready. A bibliography is not a work which involves great pride of authorship; it is necessarily a coöperative work; the committee realizes this, and if it later appears that the logical editors are outside its

membership, there will be no hesitancy to commit the task to those best fitted for it. The time between this writing and the next Convention is but enough to outline the task, to discover what partial bibliographies are available; and to make a few experiments; the proper sanctions to more concrete proposals will then be asked.

The second proposal we make is, in a sense, an offshoot of the first. It has to do with the opposition—real or supposed—between scholarship and research; between deep and wide reading in things already available to scholars and "contributions to knowledge." "Is it better," asks a correspondent, in effect, "to count the figures of speech in Webster, to trace the influence of Demosthenes on Sumner, than to know the historical setting of the eloquence of Webster or of Sumner as well as a professor in American history presumably does? If I count and trace, I can report research. If I merely know a great deal that others know, I may not boast of my scholarship." I do not think we can record the type of studies advocated by this brilliant teacher. (Such knowledge makes its presence felt by its possessor in his writing, or an invention of courses, and does not go unrewarded; perhaps the boon of not having to fill out research questionnaires is part of the reward.) But we can, in connection with the organization of graduate work, undertake to block out lines of study as opposed to lines of investigation. One of the places with which to begin is the special bibliography; this we have covered in our request for a complete view of what is available in bibliography. Another is the graduate course, formal or informal, as now conducted in various universities. We intend to ask of all heads of university departments a description of the whole course of graduate study which they make the basis of special investigations for thesis purposes; and we hope to have some contributions from others whose special knowledge makes them competent to submit outlines for study. The result of this inquiry may be a new kind of five-foot shelf for the benefit of those who seek scholarships as a basis for research.

To sum up—within a few months the research committee hopes to place in the hands of the editor of *The Journal*:

(1) a complete list of studies by members of the N. A. T. S., in process or completed;

(2) a consensus of opinion as to the direction of new investigations;

(3) four short papers on voice, psychology, persuasion, and drama, summing up what has been done and outlining what needs doing, each paper by a leader in his field, competent to indicate both the lines of study and the lines of investigation; and

(4) a summary of what our university departments are doing in that part of their graduate study outside thesis-writing.

Concurrently, the committee will develop the bibliographical project for which help has been asked above, and will try to make available the results of this in special selected bibliographies designed to cover both study and original research.

Some may feel, however, that none of these suggestions helps them directly and personally in the selection or the solution of problems. Well, a committee member who means business oils his typewriter on beginning service. The committee on research will not always be able to produce the advice or information sought, but it will always be ready to try. Accordingly, we follow President Gough's suggestion, and list the members of the committee with some indication of their special fields, adding a general invitation to reply to our questionnaires in Yankee-fashion, with questions of your own:

E. C. Mabie, University of Iowa, Dramatics.

L. E. Bassett, Stanford University, Reading and Interpretation.

G. N. Merry, University of Iowa, Voice Science.

A. T. Weaver, University of Wisconsin, Speech Correction.

C. F. Lindsley, University of Minnesota, Psychology of Persuasion.

W. E. Utterback, Dartmouth College, Psychology.

C. A. Fritz, Otterbein College (Westerville, Ohio), History of Oratory.

H. A. Wichelns, Chairman, New York University, Rhetoric and General Bibliography.

SOME RESEARCH PAPERS IN PROCESS OR LATELY FINISHED

SPEECH CORRECTION AND VOICE SCIENCE

Bullowa, Alma M. Scientific Pedagogical Investigation of Problems of Speech Correction in Adolescent Girls. (Ph. D. thesis

at New York University under Professor of Education P. R. Radosavljevich; finished; not published.) A series of scientifically conducted experiments upon average high school students in correcting certain of the more common speech errors—to the end of discovering the most economical means. It contains a survey of the contributions of psychologists, physicians, phoneticians, teachers of the deaf, *et al.*, to the problem of the teachers of speech, and as a background for the original investigation of the thesis-writer.

The History of the Development of Speech Teaching in American Education. An independent historical research paper.

Stinchfield, Sara M. A Preliminary Study of Corrective Speech with Report of Two Type Cases. (Condensation of M. A. thesis, published as University of Iowa Bulletin by Iowa Child Welfare Research Station, 1920.)

The Formulation and Standardization of a Series of Graded Speech Tests. (Ph. D. thesis at Wisconsin University under Professors Blanton and O'Neill; finished; published in Psychological Monograph Series, 1923; tests published by C. H. Stoelting and Company, Chicago.) Tests developed and standardized at University of Wisconsin Speech Clinic, to serve as a measuring scale for speech attainment. Tests were given to a sufficient number of subjects to obtain temporary norms and to prove the serviceability of the tests in detecting such speech difficulties among school and college students as retardation, letter substitution, oral inactivity, lisping, stuttering, etc.

Weaver, Andrew T. Experimental Studies in Vocal Expression. (Ph. D. thesis at Wisconsin University under Professor of Psychology C. L. Hull; finished; not published.) There are two separate divisions of the material. The first part presents data obtained from phonautographic tracings of vocal expression, and the second part describes and explains the assembling and weighing of a battery of tests for the prediction of talent in vocal expression. There are about forty pages of graphs showing vocal melody, fifteen pages of tables, and something over one hundred pages of text proper.

West, Robert. Effects of Embarrassment. (A special study sug-

gested by Professor Blanton and done at Wisconsin University under Dr. P. M. Dawson; unfinished.) The objects is to determine the effects of embarrassment on voluntary musculation. It is thought that using a simple muscle group will furnish an analogue to stuttering more easily controlled and understood than stuttering itself.

GENERAL PROBLEMS IN SPEECH EDUCATION

Williams, Robert E. A Survey of Speech Training in the High Schools of the United States, with Recommendations for Its Improvements. (A. M. thesis at University of Wisconsin under Professor Weaver; finished; published in THE JOURNAL for June, 1922.) This work was simply an attempt to find out—from all available data—just what the situation is in regard to the teaching of public speaking in the high schools of the different States of the Union. Little headway was made in the gathering of statistical material in the States not in the North Central Association. An attempt was also made to find out what number of the teachers of speech or public speaking were particularly trained for this work. The number was startlingly small. Recommendations for improvement were made.

SPEECH COMPOSITION: RHETORIC

Caplan, Harry. *Rhetorica ad Herrennium.* (Independent study at Cornell; unfinished.) A translation of a work little known and not available in English, but important in the study of classical rhetoric.

Hunt, Everett L. Rhetoric and Oratory in Classical Historiography. (An independent study at Cornell, part of which—outlining the field and suggesting a method—is finished.) A study of the classical historians—particularly Herodotus, Thucydides, Xenophon, Livy, Sallust, Tacitus—with reference to the rhetorical structure of their narrative, the composition of the speeches they invent and insert, and the influence of rhetorical schools upon them.

Dialectic: A Neglected Method of Argument. (An offshoot of an M. A. thesis under Professor of Philosophy J. H. Tufts

at Chicago; published in THE JOURNAL for June, 1921.) A sketch of a historical investigation of the method of argument by question and answer.

Sarett, Lew. A Study of Methods of Constructing the Lyceum Lecture. (An independent study at Northwestern University, for which much material is assembled, but unfinished.) A study of a body of principles governing the selection of materials, the composition, and the delivery of the professional address, the lyceum lecture. It is a piece of practical and advanced work never undertaken before from the point of view and on the scale of this work.

Crecraft, Gordon R. Three Scotch Rhetoricians of the Eighteenth Century; Kames, Campbell, and Blair. (M. A. thesis at the University of Illinois under the direction of Stuart P. Sherman; finished; published at the University of Illinois, May, 1922.) Analysis of the critical and rhetorical studies of Kames, Campbell, and Blair; the reaction of these three writers to their contemporaries and to the literature of Scotland and England in the eighteenth century; their places in the history of Rhetoric and Criticism.

Sergeant, A. Gertrude. History of "Invention" in Literary Criticism. (M. A. thesis at the University of Illinois under the direction of Murray W. Bundy; finished; published at the University of Illinois, May, 1923.) Aristotle's and Cicero's use of "invention" in their discussion of rhetoric, meaning the gathering of material for argument. This term was carried over into English criticism and used to mean the creating of fable or plot in poetry. Later it grew to mean the poetic faculty.

Wagner, Russell H. Rhetorical Theory of Isocrates. (A special study under Professor Drummond, of Cornell; published in THE JOURNAL for November, 1922.) This study attempted to set forth the methods of Isocrates as a teacher and educationalist theorist, to trace the influence of the Isocratean ideal, and to point out the usefulness of this ideal in restoring rhetoric to its proper place today.

Gray, Giles Wilkeson. Are We Wholly Dependent upon the An-

cient Greeks and Romans? (The University of Illinois under the direction of C. H. Woolbert; unfinished.) A preliminary study of the actual degree of freedom of the present teaching of speech education from the influence of the ancient orators and rhetoricians; field covers oratory and dramatic production, as well as some of the most recent innovations in speech curricula. The difference between the purposes of teaching speech, ancient and modern, is pointed out, and several factors mentioned which are of purely modern development.

PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORY OF EXPRESSION

Sarett, Lew. A Study of Audiences and of Methods of Rendering Audiences Suggestible. (An independent study at Northwestern University for which much material has been assembled, but unfinished.) A study of suggestion with reference particularly to lyceum and chautauqua audiences—types of audiences, methods of rendering them suggestible, factors affecting their responsiveness, and speech methods involved.

Gray, Giles Wilkeson. Imagery and the Problem of the Speaker. (University of Illinois under the direction of E. H. Cameron, Ph. D.; unfinished.) This is a study of the imagery content of the mind of the audience during the hearing of a speech. It offers no conclusions, but raises certain questions which ought to be solved by later research. It is the outcome of a questionnaire by the author regarding the mental imagery of some one hundred and thirty persons during the reading of certain poems; the principal problem suggested is, What is the reaction of the audience, in terms of actual imagery, to the "pictures" suggested by the speaker?

Problems in the Teaching of Gesture. (University of Illinois under the direction of Doctor C. H. Woolbert; finished; published at the University of Illinois, November, 1922.) A consideration of the value of gesture, its basic nature in speech; the actual place of gesture in the arousing of emotion, the clarifying of images, and the effect on the speaker himself. Also a discussion of the inhibitory influences in the students' use of action, and some means of removing those inhibitions.

METHODS

Brings, Lawrence M. Relation of Speech Education at High School and College Curricula. (A book by the head of the Department of Speech, Teachers College, Aberdeen, S. D., to appear September, 1923.) A plea for the introduction of speech education courses in high schools and colleges on a more uniform scholastic basis than at present; chiefly for high school principals, superintendents, and administrators in general. Relation of speech to other courses, and their proper correlation. Methods of conducting courses; control and supervision of outside activities such as dramatics and forensics.

READING AND DRAMATICS

Cunningham, Cornelius C. Interpretative Reading A Fine Art. (M. A. thesis at Northwestern University under the Faculty of the School of Speech; finished; published at Evanston, Ill., May, 1923.) An attempt to ascertain to what degree interpretative reading may be considered a fine art, and an analysis of methods of interpretation of certain selections by way of illustrating the conclusions arrived at in the thesis proper.

Smith, Marion H. Gordon Craig's Theories of Dramatic Production. (M. A. thesis at University of Iowa under Professor Mabie; unfinished.) An attempt to define Craig's real contribution to the theater by a study of all his writings and the comments of contemporary critics.

HISTORY OF ORATORY

Weaver, Florence G. John Randolph of Roanoke. (M. A. thesis at the University of Illinois under the direction of C. H. Woolbert; finished; published at University of Illinois, May, 1923.) A critical study of the Life and Speeches of John Randolph in order to determine the extent of his influence, as an orator, upon the political history of his time. A detailed study of the speeches is taken up in an effort to determine the sources of his eloquence and details of his style, as well as the value of entire speeches as oratorical compositions.

Consideration is given to the eccentric nature of the man as a contributing cause to his present lack of fame. His ability of divination is studied in connection with his political life.

THE DALLAS PLAN

ELIZABETH W. BAKER
Oak Cliff High School, Dallas, Texas

INTEREST in Spoken English has been for some time manifest in all parts of the United States. It is growing constantly more intense. Teachers of English are realizing the need of ability to talk well, which exists for them, for their pupils, and for every person who has live interests connecting with other human beings. They are realizing also that the demand for definite instruction in this phase of English is becoming more pressing.

Pioneers in this field have been, and are continuously working out better conceptions of what can be done, better methods of obtaining the objects in view, better adaptations of the course of study in English to meet the needs of modern life.

One of the chief hindrances to progress in Spoken English has been the lack of continuity in the work. The general practice has been to give to Spoken English one class period per week. This arrangement secures results that are good, a distinct advance over merely incidental attention to good language usage in lessons where the attention is centered on literature. But it is open to the criticism that the lapse of time between efforts is so great that the impulse toward improvement dies, dispelled by other interests, as lessons on literature, occurring the other four days in the week. To overcome this difficulty, to secure for each day's work the cumulative effect of the preceding efforts, I worked out the plan which is herein described, and which has been incorporated into the course of study for the Dallas High Schools. About a year ago, in January, 1922, I secured from the superintendent his approval of my trying the plan in the five English classes which I was to teach the following term, January to June, with the understanding that if the results were satisfactory, it would in the fall be extended to other classes. The following is my report to him, exactly as submitted, except a few minor points, as where the tabulations of figures are slightly condensed for the purposes of this article:

"Dr. J. F. Kimball,
Superintendent City Schools,
Dallas, Texas.
Dear Dr. Kimball:

I am submitting herewith a report of the plan which I have been trying out in my classes this term.

The results, I believe, are a very considerable improvement over those obtained by the plan previously used.

The pupils are unanimously of the opinion that they like the new plan.

Respectfully yours,
ELIZABETH W. BAKER."

REPORT ON PLAN FOR TEACHING OF ENGLISH

I. NATURE OF PLAN

The separation, in teaching, of literature from composition, and the division of composition into written and spoken, so that English is made up of three parts: Literature, Written Composition, and Spoken English.

II. OBJECT OF SEPARATION

To gain continuity in each phase of the subject, so as to intensify interest, deepen impressions made on the students, systematize the instruction, and especially to make possible the formation of habits—a thing impossible with occasional or scattered instruction.

III. SPECIAL OBJECT OF EACH DIVISION

(1) Literature: to stimulate interest in good reading, to form the habit of reading and love of good books. (2) Written composition: to inculcate habits of correctness and accuracy in matters of form, such as punctuation, placing, spelling, and to enable students to express their thoughts clearly and forcefully in such forms as letters, essays, and reports. (3) Spoken English: to give the student command of the language for speaking purposes, ready for use on any occasion, so that he can talk clearly, concisely, interestingly, and to the point.

IV. CLASSES IN WHICH THE PLAN WAS TRIED

$4A_1$, $4A_2$, $4B_2$, $4B_4$, $1B_3$.

V. TIME GIVEN TO EACH DIVISION

Literature was taught first in all classes. In three, Spoken English came next, and in two, Written Composition.

4A,	Literature,	11 weeks
	Spoken Eng.,	3 weeks
	Written,	2 weeks
4B,	Literature,	11 weeks
	Spoken,	3 weeks
	Written,	3 weeks
1B,	Literature,	7 weeks
	Written,	6 weeks
	Spoken,	4 weeks

VI. RESULTS OBTAINED IN LITERATURE

The 4A classes read (outside of class study) chiefly novels, poems, and essays. The average number of novels per pupil was between 8 and 9, and the extremes being 3 and 15.

The 4B reading I have not tabulated because it was miscellaneous; but the amount was exceptionally large.

The 1B pupils read an average of 8 books each, the extremes being 3 and 15.

VII. RESULTS OBTAINED IN WRITTEN COMPOSITION

Each 4A and 4B pupil wrote a complete essay of 700 to 1,000 words, receiving instruction on making outlines, preparing introductory and concluding paragraphs, and on conciseness in expressing thought.

In 4B classes students were allowed to work on various subjects in which they were interested. Some chose the Firestone Essay for the contest; some worked for the medal offered by the Daughters of the Revolution; some wrote essays on the paving of Ninth Street.

In 4A classes each chose his own subject, approved by the teacher.

The 1B class worked on letters.

VIII. RESULTS OBTAINED IN SPOKEN ENGLISH

The 4A and 4B classes practiced on both prepared and impromptu talks, from one to five minutes in length. The impromptu talks were voluntary discussions of motions made by other students at the close of prepared talks. Such discussion is a good test of

mastery of language, and showed a gratifying ability to think on one's feet and to speak clearly and convincingly. The three essays judged best in the Oak Cliff High School submitted for the National Firestone contest were written by my students trained largely through Spoken English.

The Oak Cliff Commercial Association desired 4-minute speakers to talk before the picture shows of Oak Cliff on the subject of a cross town car line. One of those I had taught to talk was chosen, the other two were my debating team. They were notified at 6 P. M. to prepare. At 7:30 the car called to take them to the show to make the speeches. This reveals the results of Spoken English in ready command of the language.

Improvement in vocabulary, grammar, and sentence structure was secured by the appointment in each closs of committees who watched for errors, of which they made note, handing in a written report to the teacher, who then tabulated all mistakes (including the ones she had herself noted), had them mimeographed, and given to the class to study, correcting errors in sentences, and finding synonyms for the words.

The 1B class were taught simple parliamentary practice, in which they took delight, gathering and organizing of material on close-at-hand subjects which they were allowed to choose by majority vote, such as "Oak Cluff should have a new high school," "The all-year-round system should be adopted in the Dallas schools," "Reasons why we should not use tobacco."

These they discussed simply and naturally, without self-consciousness, and learned the beginnings of how to present their ideas interestingly and effectively to their hearers.

IX. USE OF LIBRARY BOOKS

Robert's *Rules of Order* were used in the 1B class, and to some extent by the seniors. Allen's *Synonyms* were eagerly consulted by all of them; one boy was so interested he earned the money and bought one for himself.

4A Sentences for Correction—Spoken English; handed in by the class

1. For a school to be so far from your home as to have to ride every morning would be inconvenient.
2. Davis would then be an awful pretty street.

3. There is not sufficient light in the auditorium, and straining of eyes is being done.
4. He wouldn't mind, I don't think.
5. Mr. Adamson hisself—
6. We use our auditorium for a study hall, which the seats are getting scarred up.
7. Yawl know we're gona graduate in a few months.
8. Nobody knows but the party appointed.
9. He's gettin' by with it all right.
10. Which I found at first there was a great deal of opposition to.

Sentences—4B Spoken English

1. Armenia has only a small amount of people.
2. At a very minimum price.
3. That each pupil talk to their parents.
4. They have all kinds of propaganda they are putting out, such as fleas and hydrophobia.
5. The picture of the child laying on the bed, and the dog settin' beside him.
6. The reason why they won't live there.
7. Water stands over it six foot deep.
8. The clothes she already has would lay at home and waste.
9. There is not such an awful lot of traffic.
10. One reason for this is because of the way the streets are fixed. Dallas has her down-town streets fixed this way.
11. You take in the classes. They are overcrowded.
12. There's a little better than 1,500 in Oak Cliff High School.
13. The study hall, or somewheres else.
14. One end of the viaduct is kinder swagging down at one end.
15. Now take about far from school, I live—
16. From the Bonnie View plum to Lisbon.
17. A salesman, or sump'n like 'at.
18. You know that is too much for a teacher to teach.
19. When you pronounce it thataway.
20. The swimming pool would cost a lot of money, but it would he'p us so much.
21. Well, it don't seem to me—.
22. Just like I tell you, in the schools of Arkansas—.
23. All dogs should not be exterminated.
24. A dog who is not trained.

25. There are quite a few dogs that are filthy, dirty, and unclean.
26. Have to spend quite a little bit.
27. Most all the best organizations.
28. Basket-ball should be taken interest in.
29. Advantages of having automobiles are the money they save, and their time-saving ability.
30. Girls are not like they used to be.
31. An auditorium which people may assemble in.
32. A lot of stuff.
33. I can't say the Ku Klux Klan done these whippin's.
34. Property has advanced right smart.

Pronunciation	*Use—Synonyms and Substitutes*
New Orleans	lot
held	stuff
cement	teach—learn
trestle	duty—privilege
coöperation	awful
idea	nice
Genoa	amount—number
instructor	fewer—less
coop	fix
often	build
Delhi	quite a lot
vocabulary	

Eight novels in a little over four months (registration and examination days are counted off the time) may be regarded as more reading than high school students can well assimilate. It is. The object is not to assimulate thoroughly, but to read so much good literature that there will be little or no time to read that which is questionable. Note that there was no book on the list required—it was genuinely a reading choice—and that there was no stated amount to be done. Read as much as you can with comfort and pleasure was the direction.

If it seems that the sentences returned to the class are very poor English for high school seniors to use, please remember that the students were so interested in the subject, and so filled with a desire to talk that they used the kind of English they were accustomed to use outside the classroom. Only as they display their habitual language can the teacher hope to improve it.

In the fall, when I went to see the superintendent to ask the verdict on the work, he showed me the new course of study for the Dallas High Schools, of which the following is an extract:

"COMPOSITION AND READING

"Each English class will divide its time between composition and reading. The teacher should understand that she is really teaching two subjects, and that success in one does not justify neglect or failure in the other. Not every teacher has natural ability in both of these lines, and there is a danger that a teacher will devote a disproportionate amount of her time and attention to the phase that makes the larger appeal to her personally. Often composition teaching involves more labor than literature teaching and on this account many teachers slight the claims of composition and allow literature to monopolize the field. You are teaching two subjects. Make distinct and adequate plans for teaching each.

"This need by no means prevent a correlation between composition and literature at points where this appears advantageous. However, in many instances, too close a correlation is made. The immediate object in the presentation of literature in school is to enable the pupils to receive the literary effect intended by the author, normally an interesting and enjoyable experience. This purpose is not furthered by excessive and mechanical writing about masterpieces that have been read.

"ALLOCATION OF TIME

"Last spring some interesting and instructive experiments were tried in the separation of the teaching of literature from composition and the division of the composition work into written and spoken work, giving each a definite period of time. As a result of these experiments, English teachers desiring to do so may group into one period their work in literature and into another their work in spoken English and into a third their work in written English. If these phases of work are thus segregated, they should be presented in the order above, *i. e.*, literature, spoken English, and written English. The literature should not be allotted more than eleven weeks and the other two divisions of the work should not be allotted less than three weeks each."

A SUGGESTED BASIS FOR SPEECH WORK IN THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS OF PENNSYLVANIA

CORA E. EVERETT
West Chester, Pennsylvania

At the annual Conference of Pennsylvania State Normal Schools, held at West Chester, March 26-27, 1923, the teachers of speech made an effort to get some acceptable, uniform foundation for the speech requirements of the fourteen Normal Schools of the State. The present course, required of all students, is set down in the catalogues as follows: "Oral Expression, 2 periods, 2 hours credit. This course is designated primarly to insure (1) a good teaching voice and (2) effective address with facility and ease in oral expression."

Each teacher has been left to interpret this requirement in her own way, and it was hoped that a getting together of the teachers of speech would show the different teachers how others are working out the job, thus finding some common ground of procedure which would be helpful to all; and it looks as if that might be what happened.

Nine of the fourteen Pennsylvania normal schools were represented in the speech group. Besides these teachers, two normal school principals dropped in, with friendly suggestions, and Miss Helen M. Peppard, Director of Speech Improvement of the Pennsylvania Department of Education, was present and, from her wide and successful experience, gave the teachers much helpful advice. Miss Sara Gabriel, of Lock Haven, presided, and Mrs. Arthur Vincent, of Slippery Rock, was Secretary. A committee to draw up a report had been appointed at Lock Haven in 1922. It was composed of Miss Margaret Sherman of Bloomsburg, Miss Edna Lee Sprowls of Indiana, and Miss Cora E. Everett of West Chester, Chairman. Miss Peppard's address to the group stressed the need of trained speech supervisors, as much for the teachers in the schools as for the children who were to be under them. After the report of the committee was read, there was much

wholesome exchange of views. The discussion was carried over into a second meeting. The outcome was a report sent to the state committee on curriculum for Pennsylvania state normal schools.

It is hoped that this may be the beginning of a mutual understanding among speech teachers of the Pennsylvania state normal schools, as to the ground to be covered by the fundamental course, with the eventual result of a well-balanced and effective speech course acceptable alike to the teachers themselves and to the Department at Harrisburg.

The following is substantially the report:

Speech and Speech Correction in Pennsylvania State Normal School Course

The team *speech* as used in this report includes all phases of oral and pantomimic communication. *Speech correction*, as here used, means correction of faults in the speaking voice.

Any course offered in a professional curriculum must have some specific pedagogical use. Training for speaking has been included in the course of study for the teacher training schools in the State of Pennsylvania and its purpose must be recognized before recommending plans for a course in speech.

The primary purpose of courses in speech is not content; it is rather that the future teacher be trained in the science and art of speech.

What are the speech needs of the person who is going out to teach?

(1) To perfect her own powers of expression that she may (a) be an efficient speaker in the schoolroom and outside, (b) to serve as a model for her pupils for good voice and speech habits, (c) that she may appreciate the art of expression as a means of literary interpretation.

(2) (a) To recognize speech defects and faulty expression in her pupils, (b) to be fitted to correct them.

A course of training for speech and speech correction for normal school students should include those lines which will best meet those needs, and it is the purpose of this report to reach some plan for uniformity in the speech courses of the Normal Schools of Pennsylvania.

The *Fundamental Course*, required of all its students and at

present termed *Oral Expression,* should include training along the following lines:

A. VOICE, *i. e.,* Tone Production.

1. Study of organs of voice production—(a) physiology of voice, (b) exercises for good tone production, aiming to improve normal voices and to eliminate defects, including nasality and lack of resonance.

2. Establishing, as far as possible, a standard for the speaking voice, centering on: (a) consciousness of tone on the part of the teacher, (b) carrying power, (c) a pleasing quality and its reaction on the nervous system of the children, (d) training ear to hear sounds correctly.

B. SPEECH, as differentiated from voice, *i. e.,* shaping voice into correct elements which comprise speech.

I. (A). *Discussion* of fundamental conditions of good speech, including 1. Organs of speech (a) knowledge of what they are, (b) correct use. 2. Phonetics—Study of all English sounds (a) training ear to hear elements correctly, (b) training speech organs for correct position, (c) training eye to associate symbol with sound.

(B). *Drill* for correct speech by (1) exercises, (2) application to enunciation in class, (3) constant attention to effective speech in all school work and socially.

II. Correction of Speech Defects.

1. Testing each pupil, giving special training to defective speech.

2. Giving (a) class instruction in principal speech defects, (b) sufficient knowledge of speech correction to enable elementary teachers to improve the speech of pupils who have defects, as, lisping, baby-talk, lalling, nasality, etc.

III. Vocabulary builing—(1) Adding desirable words and phrases, (2) eliminating undesirable words and phrases, making differentiated lists of words.

C. *Body.* 1. Poise—General platform behavior.

2. Response of body to thought and feeling.

D. *Thought and Feeling.* I. Getting thought and feeling.

1. Developing power to take ideas. 2. Developing imagination. II. Expression of thought and feeling. 1. Including the following points (a) grouping or phrasing, (b) emphasis and subordination, (c) inflection, (d) color or quality, (e) rhythm, (f) pitch, (g) volume, etc. 2. By application to (a) Literature, (b) Public Speaking.

As can be seen, there has been no effort to urge that this fundamental course contain anything novel or revolutionary. There may be some disagreement as to terms, but it covers the ground familiar to all teachers of speech, whether of an old school or a new. Suggestions were made that more time could profitably be allowed for this course; that class sections should not exceed thirty pupils in size; that it might be profitable to agree on some uniformity of material to be used in the course.

In addition to this required course, several possible elective courses were suggested. Some of these have, in substance, been given heretofore at different Pennsylvania state normal schools. All would be three hours a week with three hours of credit for each semester's work.

Course in Correction of Speech Defects. Designed to train students to be helpful assistant supervisors of speech correction and to be able to do effective follow-up work in speech in the public schools. This course should include 1. Knowledge of speech defects with methods of correction. 2. Practice in training school in testing for and correcting speech defects. 3. Class demonstration and, if possible, some clinic work. It is advised that this course be given only by a person who has had adequate special preparation in speech correction. It is hoped that eventually there will be normal school courses for training supervisors of speech correction as there is now for music, art, and health education.

Other elective courses proposed were *Literary Interpretation; Dramatization in the grades; Play Production; Story Telling; Public Speaking* and *Debate.*

LANGUAGE OF THE BODY*

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LANGUAGE is an art; a means of conveying thought. All arts are made of some material of nature, and hence are directly governed by the laws of nature. The intelligent artist will always discover and apply those laws of nature directly applicable to his art. Underlying every art is a science When the teachers of speech and the platform arts predicate their arts on physics and psychology, there will be a more wholesome recognition of their value when it comes to arranging curriculums and recommending courses.

It is not the province of this brief treatise to show relationship between language of the body and voice, but I could not make any satisfying discussion without stating that there is an insparable union between the two. Because of the stress laid upon voice, I shall refer to it from time to time. An awkward body is always accompanied by some qualitative voice defect. When a child sees the face of a grouch, he can easily anticipate the voice. An inactive face usually denotes a monotonous voice. This union, physiognomic and vocal, is applicable in some degree to all emotional responses. An awkward hand usually indicates some consonantal defects; though this is one of the interesting phases of our work yet to be generally understood by the profession. When a defective speech patient applies for treatment, I always give him a Termanized intelligence test, and then have him do a series of hand movements to better indicate the particular maladjustment of the respective articulating agents. This latter part of the work is as important as any of the audible analyses.

The trend of modern psychology is so generally accepted nowadays, that it needs no defense with this session. The concept that

*Read at the Annual Convention of the National Association of Teachers of Speech, New York University, December, 1922.

a mind is confined to the physical limits of the brain is as fallacious as thinking that a telephone system is found only at headquarters. A short circuit to a major carrier can and does affect the entire system. Rational psychology proves to us that the mind is situated in the entire body. When a thought is to be portrayed, the body as a unit should respond to that picture. It is not sufficient to try and get all our expression in a pair of eyebrows or an index finger. Monotony of body expression is as unscientific and annoying as it is in voice. Nor is it at all uncommon for one part of the body to belie or weaken the expression of another. We all know from observation that a man in meditation, if standing, will be on the back foot, yet you and I have seen actors and readers give Hamlet's soliloquy on the vital or forward foot.

There has been so much said in regards to "being natural" and the futility of the study of body movement, that it now claims a portion of our attention. If being *natural* were to be *correct,* then there could be no further comment. But when we consider the many steps between the original movement of instinct and the acquired bodily habits of maturity, we get a basis for challenging the attitude of the student who acts the so-called *natural way.* Before the transitional or preadolescent period, the animalistic movements or those in response to instinct and native desire are still dominant. As a child of three, I visited a kind neighbor. On her table sat a wonderful cream cake. I was hungry and a boy. I looked at that cake, I walked up to that cake. I put my hands upon that cake, and I almost ate that cake. I at least ruined it and appeased my wants. A few moments later I received a healthy lecture from the neighbor and late that night, when father came home, the board of education was significantly active. Two weeks later I was over to Mrs. Browning's on cake day. The odor was sweet and coaxing. I walked out to the kitchen, and there reposed, a symposium in brown, a four-layered chocolate cake. I visually devoured that cake. I took three steps towards that cake, but stopped. I raised my hands towards the plate but checked its vandalous flight. In this moment of hesitation, the mistress arrived. Without any ado, she went immediately to the table and said, "Would you like a piece of cake?" And before I could finish my reply, "No, thank you," she cut the culinary gem and gave me a generous portion. She had done a deed of kindness and

saved the rest of the cake. But I—I learned to say "No" with my voice and words, while I had eloquently pleaded "Yes" with my body. Time went on, and there came a day when I could look a cake square in the face, nor take a step, raise an arm, smack a lip. I had now learned to dissemble with body as well as words and voice.

And to further complicate this language of ours, the great period of adolescence comes upon us. It takes us out of this Garden of Eden of innocence and unconscious body, and puts us out into the world of social intercourse and conscious body. Our limbs lengthen, joints enlarge, glands become active, and voice quality changes. We are some years in that ugly duckling state. "Seventeen" smiles upon us and the mirror is often overworked. Ego becomes most conspicuous. Indeed, there is a long period between the unconscious period of spontaneous childhood and the conscious sphere of platform manhood. Many physical habits of deterent nature have been acquired and become a part and parcel of most adult movement. To be natural no longer means to be correct. Exceptions, of course, are always inetresting.

It has been said that there are three stages of learning: unconscious ignorance (that gloriously blissful state), conscious ignorance or knowledge, and unconscious knowledge. It is this latter state to which we all aspire with the technique of any art.

Painters, musicians, sculptors and all artists, except public speakers, have long ago recognized the necessity of mastering the technique of their respective arts. We are the last group of artists to recognize that there *is* a technique for our art and that we must put our feet upon God's foundation of law and science before we can hope to stand erect enough to see the skies of Elysian promise.

Centuries ago, the sculptor knew there was a technique of the body and that no other instrument was so capable of sub sublime expression. The painter has seen this technique and selected models who could intelligently pose and hold the concept in form. These artists have known, that as the glove takes the shape of the hand that fills it, so the body takes the shape, or assumes the form of the mind that mind that governs it. They have long known that the mind shapes all the body and each part must properly coördinate and coöperate to make an artistic whole.

This brings us to the common question, "Would you teach gesture to students?" And my answer would be "Yes" if I knew body technique, and as long as students are capable of adjusting to the learning process, or as long as it takes them to put correct technique in the unconscious state. Is it *natural* to pound the table? To rise on the toes? To bob the head for emphasis? To saw the air—thus, for every occasion? To purse the lips? To twiddle with a watch chain? If the speaker has inhibited bodily expression in its entirety, he usually picks up a pet movement, hitches on to one or two expressive agents, and asks them to pull the entire burden. That is just as pleasing or sound as asking a painter to depict all scenes of nature from a blue paint pot.

The body is an instrument and must be learned as one would a piano or violin. It has more complicated scales than anything of the chromatic, diatonic, or melodic. The keys of the piano are fixed and constant; the agents of bodily expression are in constant change. The body is as sensitive as any of the finest-grained marbles; it is as subtle as the most illusive tint from the master's brush. Gesture must be the result of intelligent thought. It is just as absurd to move any part of the body without a knowledge of what it portrays as it is to say unintelligible sounds within a well-meant sentence. There is this chief difference, however. Spoken words reach intelligence through the ear, and gestures reach the intelligence through the eye. Which channel is the more important? Which sense gleans the more knowledge? Is there any significance to the adage "Action speaks louder than words"? Are there more impressions made upon the mind through the retina than the cochlea, within the same period of time? These are questions of importance to the serious student or artist.

Within time remaining, I desire to present a few laws which can easily be taught as an important part of a course in the platform arts. Of all agents of expression, the feet are the least thought of and the most conspicuously unharmonious. To arouse an interest within my students, I usually ask the class why animals tend to move in a horizontal position and man tends to move and work in a vertical position. A discussion of animal life follows. And we usually conclude that the chief difference between man and animal is not physical but intellectual. We then ask if there be any relationship between base and intelligence. We are now on

our problem. Time will not permit detail of elaboration which is used in the classroom, but at this point a discussion of the nature of material and intelligence ensues. We can readily conclude that material tends by nature towards obedience to the great law of gravity, which is always pulling down and spreading out. Its chief activities tend towards the horizontal. Intelligence by nature is ever accumulating and building up. Its chief activities tend towards the vertical. Our premise is being gradually focussed. We observe that the body of man is continually changing position and seeking a new balance, or adusting itself to gravity.

By the use of any common object, such as a chair, we come to a more pertinent conclusion. This chair, being a work of art, that is, a product of man and the embodiment of thought, represents as much intelligence as it took the artisan to accomplish his desire. The base is nearly square (□). The intelligence represented we will call *X*. If I tip the chair up on two legs, its base is now the distance between two points, or a straight line (—). It will not stand on this base of its own power, so I am obliged to stop it from falling from one of two possible ways, or one of two degrees. The intelligence may be represented now by $X + Y2°$, the Y being the new factor of intelligence used in the balancing process. If I place the chair on one leg, the base becomes a point (·). And I have to be able to stop the chair from falling in any of the 360°. The intelligence equivalent has now become $A + Y360°$. By this simple example, we show clearly that the base has decreased as the intelligence ratio has increased. This deduction is true of all man's relationship with things material. Any one can balance a triangle on its intended base, but it takes the expertness and practice of a juggler to balance that triangle on an angle point.

In relation to man's actual life, observation leads to some definite conclusions. The base of a new-born babe is from head to foot. In a few months he is sitting up. We soon see him standing and leaning against a piece of furniture. By the end of a year he has learned to toddle, and soon we witness the phenomenon of walking, the erect carriage. In the relation to growth of intelligence the conclusion is obvious. When a man who has long attained the upright and vertical, foolishly loses control of his mental self by ignoring the Volstead mandate, we see him walking

from his clubroom with a very broadened base, if not monopolizing the sidewalk. The study of environment and trades upon base is intensely interesting and profitable. But may we not now conclude that *mind activity or intelligence is expressed proportionately to narrowness of base.* In other words, the broader the base the less the activity of intelligence. Of course the seeming exceptions are what make the law interesting, but a little careful study, even though we think of the crane or one-legged goose, will readily correct the challenge. It is significant that the only animal life cursed by Holy Writ is one using its entire body as base.

And now, may we further conclude that vertical gestures, indicative of the activity of intelligence in its processes of building up, affirming, supporting, and upholding, mean Yes; and that horizontal gestures are indicative of the activities of the great physical law of gravity, which is continually tearing down and spreading out, denying and overthrowing, and come to mean No. Nor in general practice is man's pedic activity dual. He usually stands on *one* foot in support of weight, and especially is this true of the cultured and refined. The foot is divided into three distinct base parts and each as consistent in its place with expression of the body as the brow, lid, and eyeball share in responsibility the thought movements of the face. We could develop the language of each member of the body as we have indicated for the foot. The important agents of expression are the head, mouth, eyes, torso, arms, hands, and feet. Each must adjust to any change of thought and be consistent with the picture as a whole.

There are three very practicable rules for body movement. In any dominant mental selection, the activity is eccentric or to a center. Any dominant emotional activity, the gesture lines are concentric or curved. In any dominant vital selection, the line of movement is eccentric or from a center. Del Sarte gave these particular laws to the elocutionary world and hence are still in disrepute in some circles; they are laws, nevertheless, whoever might have first stated them. Such laws are easily proved by casual observation and application of life and sculpture. They must be thoroughly understood, however, before they are taught or used. It has been the misuse and lack of understanding of gesture that has put our art so many years in the region of challenge.

There is but one language the good Lord did not confuse at

Babel. Today, it stands almost as a lost art, but untrammeled by man. Jazz and jargon of body movement will disappear from the platform when the teachers of the platform arts resurrect the laws on which to base an intelligent teaching. Just as the great painter must understand the breaking up of light to give him rainbow hues, as the great musician must comprehend the harmonic vibrations based on a 256 for middle C, so the public speaker must learn and study those laws of body expression which have been existent since man first concoursed with his kind. It is the greatest universal method of conveying thought. The more common gestures the world knows; the most subtle the artist must learn and master. There *is* a definite technique of the body and the handwriting is on the wall. We must no longer ignore its power if we wish our art to claim properly the dignity history has saved for it; the most democratic and greatest of all the arts.

HOW MUCH ARE WE DEPENDENT UPON THE ANCIENT GREEKS AND ROMANS?

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THE story is told of a certain Athenian who, when the time came for the annual nomination of undesirable citizens of the city for ostracism, wrote upon his shell the name of Aristides, because, he said, he was tired of hearing the man continually referred to as "the Just." It was a perfectly normal, human act; to use an expressive phrase from modern slang, he was "fed up" on the virtues and excellencies of the great counsellor and orator. Probably most of us at the present day have at some time experienced a similar feeling. The matter of the actual merits or demerits of the individual in question does not enter into our attitude at all; the small boy detests the other small boy who is always being held up to him as a model; nothing, it is said, so infuriates a man as to hear his wife repeatedly mentioning another woman's spouse as the perfect husband. We may admire a man for his

good qualities, but at the same time we like to feel that he has his limitations; and we are prone to take a secret pleasure, even if we do not outwardly demonstrate our satisfaction, when we find that the one who has heretofore been considered infallible has made a mistake, or that the man who originated the "key to memory" forgot to mail his wife's letter.

Perhaps it was something of the same surfeit that prompted the present inquiry. Having begun it, one finds that while the admiration for the abilities and knowledge of the classical orators is not in the least jeopardized, that admiration is tempered by the realization of the fact that after all they were human beings, men like most of us nowadays, for the most part, and that they also had their limitations, even as you and I. This recognition, on the contrary, increases our regard for their achievements, so that we are more and more amazed at the stupendous work that they did, a work that has exerted a tremendous influence upon modern thought and upon modern theory of public speaking.

In perusing the various treatises on oratory and speech which have been written in the past few years, however, the reader is led to wonder if the ancients left anything to be discovered or learned about the science of speaking. Great as is their bequest to posterity, the query presents itself as to whether that posterity has in truth contented itself with living on its inheritance, without making an effort to create, improve, or amplify. Is the talent which has been entrusted to us still but one talent, or has it been put to use so that we can now draw upon two talents, or five, or even ten? Or have we lost even a part of that which we had? Have the moderns, in other words, more to draw upon than had the ancients? Is there anything that we know or can know that the Attic and Roman orators did not or could not know? Have any phases of speech training been evolved since the day that Demosthenes took his own life to avoid falling into the hands of the enemy, or since Neoptolemus trod the boards of the Attic theatre? These and other questions of similar import are pertinent at the present time, and in the present status of speech education.

Just as the satiated Athenian was probably willing to recognize the merits of Aristides, but may have felt that the great adulation would do him no good, and might becloud the modest claims of other citizens to a modicum of consideration, so it may

be felt that too great homage may be paid to the times and achievements of the ages long since gone, and the accomplishments of the present neglected. Indeed, according to the implied attitude of certain writers, it may be a matter of doubt if the present has any such accomplishments worth mentioning. But it is a dangerous thing always to be looking into the past with a view to advancing into the future. The sunset of last night may have been gorgeous, but in the morning we turn our eyes to the east. The observation platform is an excellent place from which to view the scenery, one can get a very good idea of the "lay of the land" from that vantage point; but the engineer is not among those present. In the same way in the field of speech education, it is well to look backward and know what has been passed, as well as to use what is available; but it is equally well to keep an eye ahead, so that we can see where we are going, and to discern the things that may be of advantage to us in that direction.

Although, as it was confessed, this inquiry was started with something of the feeling of the old Athenian mentioned at the first of the article, some study into the matter has led to the conclusion that there are a few things that we can learn from the moderns as well as, if not better than, from the ancients; that in certain circles too much attention is being paid to antiquity at the expense of the present; and that an attempt is being made to fasten upon us the traditions of yesterday, without granting the possibility that today may also bring forth its own achievements.

In the first place, the purpose of speech education at the present time is not the same as it was in the days of Demosthenes and Cicero. Under the prevailing system of that day success depended upon the ability of the Greek or Roman citizen to enter into the politics of the state, and make himself felt in the councils of the mighty. Greatness was measured by political leadership or, perhaps, by military genius. For that purpose, since that leadership depended then, as much as it does now, though to a less degree, upon the ability to address an audience of men also versed in the technique of oratory, rivalry was keen, and the necessity for a high standard of education in that particular line arose. Cicero, in his *De Oratore*, admits that it is the purpose of his treatise to instruct for certain definite ends. "Because I see that the Greeks . . . have made a kind of partition of the arts, and have not singly

labored in the whole circle of oratory, but have separated from the other parts of rhetoric that department of eloquence which is used in the Forum on trials or in deliberations, and have left this species only to the orator; I shall not embrace in these books more than has been attributed to this kind of speaking by the almost unanimous consent of the greatest men" (11: p. 11).

In order fully to understand this condition it will be well to state briefly a part of the theory of education as it prevailed among the Greeks. At the basis of all Greek thought was the principle that the citizen was a part of the State, and all his effort was to be directed toward the good of the greater organism. To quote Aristotle on this: "No citizen has a right to consider himself as belonging to himself, but all ought to regard themselves as belonging to the State, inasmuch as each is a part of the State; a care for the part naturally looks to care for the whole" (15: p. 3). What Aristotle disregarded is a later idea, that a care for the whole naturally looks to care for the parts.

In furtherance of this principle the inhabitants of the Athenian state were sharply divided into three groups: the artisans, the soldiery, and the administrative. For these three groups there were three corresponding degrees of education. It was thought that the first should have none whatever; the members of this class were little more than serfs and were generally held in the same contempt as the barbarians of the north. For the second group a moderate degree of education was attempted, only such, however, as would make the men better soldiers. This consisted primarily of the same early teaching as was given to the higher class, and in addition to that, the strictly military phases were emphasized. The administrative went far above this. Whereas the soldiery ceased their education at about the age of twenty, it was thought that the education of the highest class never ended. Their knowledge was extended as far as possible in politics, philosophy, science, and all that was included in the body of Greek thought of the time.

The life of the three classes was thus limited by their occupation. An artisan was never more than that; having no education he could never rise above his class. The soldier was always a soldier; but the administrator was limited only by his capacity and natural inclination. So far as the present inquiry is concerned, it is with this group that we have to deal. The other two are

neglected in the matter of speech training. And since the two lower classes composed by far the greater part of the population of the state, it can be seen, as it was frankly admitted, that education was for the benefit of the few. Aristotle himself says: "Instruction, though it plainly has the power to direct and stimulate the generous among the young . . . is as plainly powerless to turn the mass of men to nobility and goodness. For it is not in their nature to be guided by reverence, but by fear, nor to abstain from low things because they are disgraceful, but (only) because they entail punishment" (15: p. 12). Davison remarks that "Greek education was intended only for the few. . . . The subjects of education were sons of full citizens, themselves preparing to be full citizens and to exercise all the functions of such" (15: p. 12).

The duties of the "full citizen" as understood by the ancients, consisted of two phases: the *economic* and the *political*. In the former were three relations, that of husband to wife, that of father to children, and that of master to slaves and property. In the latter were the legislative, the administrative, and the judiciary duties. Beyond these all was left to the slaves and the lower classes. The modern attitude toward business was entirely foreign to the Greek mind; he despised money-making as such, and all his labors were devoted to the state. This was true as to art, pilosophy, drama, and oratory. "As husband, father, master in the family, and as legislator, officer, and judge in the State, each member of the governing class found his proper range of activities; and he did wrong, degrading himself to the level of the serving class, if he sought any other" (15: 14).

Thus it is that in the classical oratorical training we find the entire effort directed to enable man to take his place in the Forum or in the assembly as a political orator, or as a pleader in the courts of justice. In fact, the entire art of oratory, so far as it had its basis in the analysis of the speech, arose from the court practise of ancient Syracuse. From this it never departed very far. Even Demosthenes' *On the Crown* is in reality a defense of himself against the attacks of Aeschines, and his four Philippics are attacks upon the Macedonian. Cicero's orations against Cataline are to be placed in the same category, as are those for Roscius, Milo, and L. Muraena, and those against Marcus Antonius. That

a man should be educated in speech for any other purpose did not occur to the ancients, so far as we know. An exception to this can be taken in the case of acting. But general education in speech, for the purpose of communication as such, was not included in the Greek or Roman curriculum.

What does Cicero have to say about that? "If I conceive that he (the student) may reach the level of eminent speakers, I will not only exhort him to persevere in labor, but, if he seem to me to be a good man, will entreat him; so much honor to the whole community do I think that there is in an excellent orator, who is at the same time a good man. But if he shall appear likely, after he has done his utmost in every way, to be numbered only among tolerable speakers, I will allow him to act as he pleases, and not be very troublesome to him. But if he shall be altogether unfit *for the profession,** and wanting in sense, I will advise him to make no attempts, or to turn himself to some other pursuit" (11: 105).

In other words, if a man gives promise of being a great orator, encourage him. So far, so good; but if he promises to be only fair, let him go along as best he may, and pay little attention to him; he will get discouraged some time, and quit of his own accord. But if he gives no promise at all of being able to fit himself for the profession of an orator, then by all means he should discontinue his attempts to better his speech, and take up "some other pursuit!" There is no hope for him even to better his expression; his very development itself is sentenced to perpetual dwarfishness. The emphasis, then, was on the profession; expression of one's self was not in the thought of the ancient; and speech as a means of mental development was still awaiting the oncoming of modern psychology. This viewpoint is of first significance in our study. The fact that all the eligible youths of Greece and Rome were interested in studying oratory does not affect this fact; they themselves, knowing that their careers depended upon their making names for themselves in the forum or at the assembly, were all driving toward that one thing. Naturally, a great advancement in the art of speech was inevitable; but the point is that since the purpose then was what it was, all training was as a consequence narrowed down to that one field, and limited to that

* The italics are mine.

one class. The theory of speech improvement as an educational force for the masses is a modern development.

Contrast with the ancient ideals the purpose of today. We are not at present so much concerned with the development of orators. At any rate, that is not the sole end of our speech curricula. The reaction against centering the whole attention of the departments upon the training of contestants, and the winning of debates and oratorical contests, is evidence of this fact, if there were no other proof. The student in the schools of today has a thousand different possibilities open to him; he does not have to choose the Senate or the courts to be assured of a career. Most of the young men to graduate from our schools enter into professions and trades where oratory, in the sense of the speech of Demosthenes, would be sadly out of place. Before me is the *Alumni News Bulletin* of a certain comparatively small Liberal Arts college in the Middle West. The following statistics will show the diversity of vocations entered by the graduates of that school:

Teachers	697
Lawyers	465
Ministers	465
Physicians	150
Business	129
Farmers	71
Bankers	45
Manufacturers	38
Journalists	108

And so on down through a list of salesmen, librarians, artists, civil engineers, secretaries, chemists, musicians, publishers, contractors, druggists, as well as many others. It may be added that this is a denominational school, where the percentage of ministers and teachers is unusually high. What is to be said of the large universities, with their different colleges, where the engineers, the agriculturalists, the commerce students, and the "medics" form a far larger proportioon of the enrollment, and for which students it is not the ability to make orations so much as the ability to speak plainly, clearly, concisely, which is the demand?

Some specific figures will show this condition. At the University of Wisconsin, for the year 1921-1922, the students were classified in the following schools:

Liberal Arts	5,258
Commerce	1,111
Journalism	268
Medicine	161
Engineering	1,284
Law	253

At the University of Illinois for the same year we find the following:

Liberal Arts and Sciences	2,786
Commerce	2,063
Education	291
Engineering	1,737
Agriculture	1,036
Law	130
Medicine	355

Syracuse University exhibits a similar situation:

Liberal Arts	1,401
Fine Arts	855
Medicine	176
Law	191
Business Administration	1,099

Cornell University, for the same year:

Liberal Arts	1,871
Law	97
Medicine	149
Agriculture	1,165
Engineering	1,626

Not all of the schools and colleges in these universities have been listed, but the indications are all the same. At hand are the figures for many other institutions, all showing the same thing, namely, that the vast majority of the young men of today are finding their life work in other fields than the political arena or the law court; they are finding that the realization of their individuality is not in devotion to the state to the exclusion of personal interests, but rather in that self-realization of which Adams speaks: "The true theory of self-realization (the cry of the age) carries us beyond the more or less mechanical and now discredited theory of pact to the higher notion of an organism, which is certainly present in germ in both Plato and Aristotle" (1: 148).

Besides the discarding of the notion that the individual is subordinate to the state has come the more advanced theory that education, instead of being for the select few, is for the masses. Witness the tremendous storm of criticism of President Meiklejohn and others for their promulgation of the idea that there ought to be an "aristocracy of brains." Witness the establishment of the state universities upon the theory that all who will may come and partake from the fountains of wisdom. Consider the great influx of students to these institutions until they are overcrowded to a point that efficient operation is impossible.

With the changing and advancing theories and practises of education must come the changing theories of speech training. To adhere to the ancient principle that the ultimate goal of all such development is the Forum or the Agora is to betray our opportunity. The application of all the theories of the Attic orators to the present conditions would be an utter impossibility, if, indeed, it were even desirable.

With the enlarging of the horizon of the student body comes the necessity for extending the scope of speech training. It is not unlikely that this statement will be accepted with considerable skepticism, especially on the part of those who have been steeped in the thought that in the education of the Greeks we have the *summum bonum*, the ultimate perfection, of speech training. But a glance at some of the catalogues of the leading colleges and universities will indicate the extent of the field as it is now presented. We find courses in oral expression, voice production, voice science, extempore speaking, oratory, argumentation, debate, dramatic production, interpretation, phonetics, correction of speech defects, psychology of speech, teaching of speech, forms of public address, history of oratory, story-telling, oral reading, parliamentary law, pageantry, and so on *ad infinitum*. Many of these, it is true, were taught, and that very effectively, in the time of Demosthenes, while others are a more recent innovation. Search from one end of classical literature to the other, and we will not find anything to compare with recent writings on some of them. As for those that we have, the modern treatment is far better for the present day than is the ancient. It is something to present an old idea in new form. But the emphasis is on the various phases of speech training rather than on the public oratory of the ancients.

In an article appearing last year (31: 130) Professor Paul Shorey, after developing the thesis that there is much that teachers of speech at the present day can learn from the ancient Greeks and Romans, has this to say:

"But have I answered the question, What is there in it for you as students and practical teachers of the theory and 'art of speech'? I might repeat that somewhere in this vast body of ancient rhetorical literature you will find at least a hint of every useful idea that modern study of the subject has suggested, and that in the four or five best books these ideas are presented with a directness, simplicity, lucidity, and above all, an immunity from the infections and pretensions of pseudo-science that few ambitious modern text-books attain. But you may reverse the argument and say that all that these ancients have to teach can also be found in the best literature, French and English, if one knows where to look for it. That is true, . . ."

This is a most important admission for teachers of speech today. Granting the proposition that there is "at least a hint" of all these ideas in the works of the ancient rhetoricians, one main trouble is that in many cases that is all there is: just a hint. To illustrate: Quintilian attempts to give a treatise on speech training for children which is characteristic of the theories of the ancients, but which would hardly fit the present-day needs. There is a hint of training in reading, but those ideas have been thrown into the discard, lo, these many years. We no longer insist that the first thing that the child shall learn shall be the letters, then the syllables, then the word, and finally the sentence. A recent monograph by Professor Buswell on "Fundamental Reading Habits" (37)* as well as numerous other studies from the laboratory of the University of Chicago and other institutions, has a far more accurate viewpoint toward that subject than had Quintilian or any of the classical writers. Perhaps Professor Shorey would characterize the efforts of his colleagues as "pseudo-scientific," but the fact remains that the application of those findings are getting results which are more in accord with modern needs than the outworn methods of the Greeks and Romans could ever get.

Of far greater significance is the admission that "all that these ancients have to teach can also be found somewhere in the best literature, French and English, of today, if one knows where

*Reviewed in this number. (Editor.)

to look for it." We do not consider that Plato and Aristotle are authorities in the field of economics and politics, outside of the economic theory and political practises of the ancient world. It is interesting to know that some of the ideas that they had at that time are valid for the present as well. We read them over, compare them with those brought out by present research, and say that after all the ancients knew a few things. But the comparison is made on the basis of the now. Why, then, should we accept as final the dictum of the rhetoricians of that time, and argue that because they said certain things, they must *ipso facto* be right? By what standard do we judge that even in the field of oratory they were so excellent? Is it not because the research of the present is bearing out the theories to which they held? The agreement of ancient theory and practise with the modern argues not that we are right because we agree with them, but that they were right because they agree with present-day knowledge. The basis of comparison is not the ancient, but the modern; and there are twenty-four centuries in the difference between the two viewpoints.

Again, in the whole body of teachings of that time we find much that is invalid. Are we satisfied to accept as final the decree of certain men who were authorities then as to what was good and what was not, or as to what is good now and what is not? The whole point is that the teachings of the ages are being tested now, according to the ideals and standards of today. Even in the orations of Demosthenes we find elements that are bad. For example, in his oration on Aeschines, although, as Brougham points out, it is to the point, it is not reasoning or argument (6: 56). His audience did not want that; they wanted to be moved and pleased. Compare with that the quality of reasoning in Webster's plea to the jury in the White Murder Case. While perhaps not in all particulars is the latter the superior of the Aeschines oration, it is safe to say that before a modern jury Webster's plea would stand by far the better chance of gaining the verdict. In many of Cicero's orations he departs very far from the point at issue. His oration for Archais has no more than one-sixth bearing directly upon the case. Of some sixty-four pages of the oration in defense of Publius Sextus not four hold to the point in dispute.

"If it is meant to be said that those Attic orators, and especially their great chief, made speeches in which long chains of

elaborate reasoning are to be found, . . . nothing can be less like the truth. . . . Chains of reasoning, examples of fine argumentation, are calculated to produce their effect upon a far nicer, a more confined, and a more select audience. But such happy allusions—such appropriate topics—such happy hits (to use a homely but expressive phrase), have a sure, an irresistible, a magical effect upon a popular assembly. In these the Greek oratory abounds, and above all, its greatest master abounds in them more than all the lesser rhetoricians. . . . Close reasoning was not their object" (6: 48).

In still another characteristic can some of the practises of the ancients be judged according to modern standards. If we consider the fact that oratory then was a fine art we will understand some of the things they did. At present speech in general is not so considered, and therefore we would not think of engaging, for example, in certain types of invective. "It is not a charge which can nowadays be made against an adversary either at the Bar or in debate that he has made a bad speech, that his eloquence is defective, that his figures are out of keeping, his tones inharmonious, or his manner awkward. Yet these are topics of ordinary recrimination and abuse between Demosthenes and Aeschines. To have argued inconclusively, to counsel badly, to act corruptly, or feebly, or inconsistently, are the charges to which the combatants in the more close and business-like battles of our Senate must confine themselves. With us it is no matter of attack that an adversary's tropes are in bad taste, or his manner inelegant, or his voice unmusical" (6: 43).

In the matter of content, it is generally conceded that they fall far short of the moderns. "It is impossible to deny that the ancient orators fall nearly as far short of the modern in the substance of their orations as they surpass them in their composition. Not only were their views far less enlarged, which was the necessary consequences of their more confined knowledge, but they gave much less information to their audience in point of fact, and they applied themselves less strenuously to argument. . . . The assemblies of modern times are eminently places of business, the hearers are met to consider certain practical questions, not to have their fancy charmed with choice figures or their taste gratified with

exquisite diction or their ears tickled with harmonious numbers. They must therefore be convinced; their reason must be addressed by statements which shall prove that the thing proposed is just or expedient or that it is iniquitous or impolitic" (6: 45).

If we accept as entirely valid the practises of the ancients, we must also admit that these devices are just as legitimate as they were then. But, on the contrary, we sift out of the whole body of theory what present-day study has proved good, and the rest we throw into the discard except as it may be interesting as a study. This is a constant practise in the study of any science. One might enumerate many hypotheses which have gone by the board: the "faculty" psychology, the Greek notion that the individual existed solely for the good of the state, the contract theory of government, the Delsartian principles of expression; even the immutability of the elements is in danger of being relegated to the limbo of things that were. The antiquity of a theory does not bother the scientist in the least; the mathematician no longer insists that the Euclidian geometry is based on absolute truth; and science is speculating widely on the probable effect on certain generally accepted propositions if the hypotheses of Einstein are found to be substantiated. Why, then, if we are to put our theories of speech on a scientific basis—and no other will stand the severe tests that modern practise will put upon them—shall we bow the knee to the god of antiquity, and offer up sacrifices on the altar of the Unchangeable? One can use the principle of the screw, in all its mechanical applications, without even knowing that it was invented by Archimedes.

It is true that there is much in the teachings and writings of the ancients that is of interest and even value to us at the present time. This value, however, is enhanced because it agrees with modern knowledge; it does not affect the validity of present teachings to argue that Demosthenes knew the same thing. It is interesting to know that Corax divided the speech into five parts, but if modern practise showed that there were a better division, Corax's principle would remain only as a curious fact in the history of ancient oratory, as do some of the other divisions which are not much less ancient than that of Corax. His having discovered that principle has no more to do with its intrinsic truth today than if it were the result of the research of the last decade.

We are glad to know that they were so nearly right; but our own horizon must be far broader than theirs if we are fully to appreciate just how much they did know.

There is likely to be too great a tendency to ascribe to the ancient writers too great an insight into the implications of what they wrote. Just as we read into Shakespeare things which he probably never had in mind when he wrote his lines, just as hundreds of sermons can be evolved from a single verse of the Bible, in the same way we are likely to give too much meaning to certain passages. "It does not follow that these old writers were fully aware of all the implications of their own writings. No doubt we read into Plato and his fellows a great deal more than quite entered into their consciousness. This line of argument always has the unpleasant effect of making us moderns appear condescending towards the master minds of the past; and we need to keep reminding ourselves that we see farther than the men of old merely because we are standing on their shoulders. We must humbly acknowledge the lift they gave us; but it is folly to blink the fact that we do see farther" (1: 95). This is true in the field of oratory just as it is in educational theory.

Summing up, then, the argument in so far as it applies to the field of oratory, these are the outstanding points to be taken into consideration:

1. The purpose of present-day speech education differs from that of ancient times in that all education then was a privilege of the few, of the leaders, now it is the privilege of the many, of the populace.

2. Whereas leadership then meant largely the ability to make an oration, and the possibilities of a career were limited to a small number of fields, today hundreds of vocations are open, many of these demanding only the ability to talk well, and not to make orations.

3. Since these possibilities are so varied, speech training must be broadened to meet the demands of a wider scope of activity.

4. In the speech curriculum of today the present treatises are of far more value than those of twenty-four centuries ago. It matters not that the principles are in general the same as they were then. Except in the broadest possible way, we even doubt that they are the same.

5. Whether the theories we have now are of recent promulgation or of the most ancient, they are tested on the basis of present needs, and not according to the demands of the Forum or the Greek Assembly.

II

In one other phase of speech training can the ancients be said to have exerted influence upon the moderns, and this influence we shall show is not great, and that influence, still felt, is doing us little if any good. That phase is the field of the drama.

It would be possible to go into the history of dramaturgy, and show how, at the time of the pre-Shakespearen period, Seneca, who was a poor imitator of the Greeks, was introducing a new element into the English drama. Through both the French and Italian media English tragedy was given a form and a content that it had not had before. At this time the Greek tragedies were unknown in England; the first genuine translation of a Greek play was probably the *Electra* of Christopher Ware, printed at The Hague in 1649 (14: 11). But gradually this influence was thrown off, due to the changes in conditions which always affect the drama of any age. Marlowe shows few of the "sage reflections with which Seneca adorned his plays, but we have all Seneca's horror of incident and exaggeration of expression" (14: 59). It is more than likely that Peele was influenced by Seneca only indirectly through Marlowe (14: 61), and "what Greene did borrow from Seneca was not to his advantage" (14: 62). Shakespeare is still further away from this influence, and in Shirley, "the last of the giant race," we find the complete "emancipation of English tragedy from the authority of Seneca, except so far as regards the character of his themes" (14: 123). Of the contributions of this writer, we might mention the division of a play into five acts, themes of violence and blood, and the reflective element. A glance at the modern drama will show all of us that none of these three characteristics is inevitably present in any degree. The soliloquy, and even the aside, have been discarded; more plays are in three and four acts, seldom one in five; and the vogue of the one-act play is a still further departure from the ancient Senecan drama; as for violence and blood, it is usually expurgated from the action on the stage, if even suggested.

There is one great difficulty in allowing the classic influence

to have much weight in the modern drama, and that is that great drama is an outgrowth of the age, not only in the matter of the construction of the play itself, but in the matter of presentation. Greek tragedy, in fact, the whole of Greek drama, was as characteristic of its own times as a modern drama. The manner of staging the play was equally the product of the age. To foist upon the one day the product of another, except as a classical curiosity, is to present an anachronism which is incongruous in its effect.

This is not to say that the dramas of Sophocles are not great plays; they are admitted to be by all authorities. The dramas of Aeschylus, Euripedes, and Aristophanes are likewise classics; but the point to remember is that they are the classics of a classic age. To present them now just as they were presented to the Greek populace at the Dionysiac festivals would have about the same effect as the presentation of, let us say, "Arms and the Man," or "The Doll's House," or "Mary Rose" would be to the ancient Greek assemblage. They simply would not understand it, because they would not understand the general conditions that made that particular type of drama inevitable for the period. Just as the times are different, so must the drama be different. Huntly Carter states this idea well: "To take the Greek drama, for example, it is obvious that without prolonged and (perhaps expert) study, or without the possession of peculiar mental characteristics, no modern mind can be expected to realize the mystic whim which governed ancient Greece. It would be the same with plays based on primitive African or Australian customs. The whole thing would be foreign to us. Even if we remove the mystic element from the Greek Drama, the objection remains. There is the essential difference of the conception of life, of character, and especially of the purpose of the drama—a purpose not capricious, but emerging from the spirit of the time—to be fully understood. . . . If, then, the Greek drama was produced by a peculiar set of circumstances, it follows that it cannot stir anyone who is not intimate with those circumstances, that is, produced by the same spirit and produced it. If it is true that the drama which came from ancient Greece or China, or Shakespeare's England, can be made to draw large audiences, it is because producers like Max Reinhardt succeed in putting more of the human power of today into it, and leaving out the peculiar human power of the age to which it be-

longs. Each drama is, in fact, an up-to-date, not an original product; an impurity, not a purity" (9: 288).

The revolt against the tyranny of the classical influence began in the Elizabethan period, and has grown stronger and stronger, until the modern drama is well-nigh a complete emancipation from the limitations imposed by Aristotle. It is true that it bears marks of resemblance, but the similarity is one of analogy and not due to direct inheritance. This was the case even as far back as the early Seventeenth Century. The "secret of such an approach (from 'Gothic to Greek') so far as it is made, is not due to any immediate contact with the antique, but to dramatic genius instinctively realizing essential principles of tragic art" (8: 19). The sources of English tragedy are not in the headsprings of Grecian drama, but are to be traced rather to the old English Morality and Miracle plays. The agreement of Shakespeare and Sophocles is an "unconscious one, and not because of any attempt to model upon the masters of classical Greece" (8:93).

Since most of our dramatic tradition comes from the masterpieces of this period, it is evident that the influence of the ancient drama through that medium has been very slight. But it crept temporarily into the later drama to such an extent as to dominate both form and content. It is against this later domination that the present-day dramatist and producer are in rebellion. The "laws" which were formulated by Aristotle have long since been recognized as two thousand years out of date. Since the time they were set down in his *Poetics* a steady evolution has taken place; and "no matter how remarkable Aristotle may have been in perception, intention, and analysis, his formulation of the practises of dramatists until his time are today invalid if only on the score of incompetence" (22:31). Today the dramatists "chafe under the manifest injustice of having their works measured by the Aristotelian yardstick" (Idem).

The result has been an inevitable breaking away from that limitation, and the founding of a new, modern drama, one which is truly a product of the time, unshackled by any influence other than the demands of the present. For the uncreative dramatist the Greek construction may be of value, but the "creative author will leave Greece and its drama severely alone. He will shun the tyranny of the Greek influence as he would a plague, remembering

that the advanced men of today do not build Greek temples, but temples of their own, having a form springing from the inner necessity of creation, not from the outer necessity of imitation'' (9: 290). There is plenty of material in the present for the aspiring dramatist without reviving ideas which were born of an age entirely different from ours. ''Classics are not the stuff upon which to build vital authors'' (Idem).

The inadequacy of the Greek drama at the present time may be shown by the fact that whenever the classic tragedy is presented to a modern audience it is usually set in a purely modern scene, in the sense that effects are given which were unknown in the time of Sophocles. A possible exception to this statement may be made in the case of the ''Greek theatres'', such as the one at the University of California, where meritorious performances have been given. Archibald Haddon, writing of the dramatic occurrences of the past few years (20), speaks of the presentation at the ''Old Vic'' of ''The Trojan Women.'' ''Transpontine drama,'' he says, ''proved to be a synonym, on this occasion, for lovely words exquisitely spoken amid artistic effects of dressing, lighting, and deportment. The color scheme alone—in costumes and draperies—would have done credit to any West End stage (p. 66). Of ''Medea'' it is said, ''The staging of a chastely simple Corinthian exterior scene (before the house of Medea) and the colouring and lighting effects were all glowingly artistic.'' In the presentation of the Fifth Act of ''Andromaque'' ''The curtain rose on a classic setting of purple draperies, flanked by high stone columns and furnished with a dais covered with leopard's skins.'' In each one of these the classical effect is obtained by devices which are not in themselves classical in their development.

One can read page after page of dramatic literature without coming across a single reference to antiquity. Writers discuss the changing drama, the art of the theatre, the theatre of today, acting, producing, and all kindred subjects without referring once to the influence of the classical drama. Occasionally one is to be found who points out the similarity in some particular to the practises of the ancients, and even more seldom someone comes forward with a plea to get back to the simple art of the Greeks. But for the most part the modern drama—the Modern Drama—is looking forward rather than back. The classics ''are the food for reincarnated

souls. Strictly speaking, only reincarnated souls should produce, interpret, and witness them'' (9:290).

This discussion of the drama in general is essential if we are to have a true appreciation of the attitude we are to take in the teaching of things dramatic. By no means should the classical tragedy be entirely excluded from study; but it should be presented with no false ideas of its importance with relation to that with which we have to deal most, namely, the *modern* drama.

The very fact that we are including in our curricula the subject of the drama, its technique and its art values, is a significant departure from the ancient practise. In Greece at the time of Aristodemus, in fact throughout the entire period of dramatic splendor, the performances were educational only in the sense of affording the spectators an occasional glimpse of a work of art as well as giving opportunity for another religious celebration. The actor was a very distinguished personage, but his calling was a profession, to be looked on as such. In Rome he was considered to hold a degrading occupation, and no citizen dared to appear on the stage, on peril of being deprived of his citizenship (29.). The conditions under which all performances were given precluded the possibility of the educational drama such as we now have. To give all the youth of Athens or Rome such a course as is in every well-regulated speech curriculum would have been an utter impossibility; and Professor Baker's Workshop 47, or the Portmanteau Players, or the Provincetown Players, or the Washington Square Players, or the Harvard Dramatic Club, or any of the hundreds of dramatic organizations now arising all over the country, could not possibly have found support under the regime of that time. The true significance of our teaching the drama lies in the purely educational aspect, a thing unknown to the ancients. We are not interested in the training of actors or producers, except in a few isolated cases, such as the School of the Drama at Carnegie, and some specialized conservatories. This is not our problem as teachers in the colleges, normal schools, and high schools of the country. What we attempt, or should attempt, is an appreciation of dramatic presentation, both as a study of one form of art, and as a problem in speech education. The results we are to attain are twofold: the development of personality through the study of the speech phases and through the medium of self-expression; and,

second, the enlargement of the horizon by means of a study of the actions and moods and emotions of other people as they are presented to us by the dramatist, and as we learn to know them by our contact with them. And this is a purely modern viewpoint.

For this purpose the modern drama is far more efficacious, because it is a product of the age which has also produced our students; because the major principles of the art being universal, the students can get a better appreciation of that art through a language and situations which they can understand.

III

But the modern speech curriculum does not stop with these two phases, namely, oratory and dramatics. They are the two about which the ancients knew most, however. Today, in answer to the demand for a broader field of study than was known twenty-four centuries ago, many things are included about which the Attic orators and the classical dramatists knew little. Some others they practised, but we have no record of the technique of their art. We know that the story-teller was a distinguished man at that time, especially in ancient Greece, at the time of Homer and before. But it has remained for the moderns to analyze that art, to determine the principles on which it is based, and again to give it a distinct educational significance. It might be in order to mention some of the other things about which the same might be said.

The question at issue in this as in the other subjects discussed above is not whether the ancient Greeks and Romans practised certain arts, but how much of their knowledge has been handed down to us in such a way that we can make use of it in our teaching. Still more important in any consideration of the value of that knowledge is the fact that here again, as in oratory and the drama, our judgment of that worth must of necessity be based on the standards of the present. Any other basis cannot be conducive to advancement; and walking backward is a rather precarious way of making progress.

In this category may be placed the study of the voice. While this took up a very great deal of the attention of the ancients, aside from a few general principles, research into this phase of antique practise nets us little which we can use now. It is interesting to know that in Athens the development of the voice reached

great heights. In the large outdoor theatres where the dramas were presented it was necessary. We know that the training of the voice was an indispensable part of the education of the orator and the actor. But how much information is there that is of actual validity in voice training at the present time? Besides, that is one thing that cannot be done by correspondence, even when the instructor happens to be the greatest voice specialist in the history of speech, be he Demosthenes or Caruso. The researches of Dr. Merry are of vastly more significance to us of the present than is anything that we can learn from the ancients.

For argument we can do much better than to study the speeches of the Attic orators. The brief is a modern invention; and the close reasoning as exemplified in such speeches as Jeremiah S. Black's "Right to Trial by Jury," or Burke's "Conciliation with America," gives us a better model than any of the classical orations. Dozens of treatises on debate and argumentation have been written, and are still being written, in which every illustration is taken from modern speeches. The significance of this situation lies in the fact that for the purposes of modern argument modern examples are of greater value than those of antiquity.

The ancient orators studied their audiences, but the psychology of the audience, on a scientific basis, is a study of today. There is much to be done here, and it is safe to venture that what will be accomplished will not be accomplished through delving into the practises of the past. The entire matter of the psychology of speech is a modern conception, something to be taken into the modern laboratory and worked out there. It is not impossible, nor is it improbable, that what we shall find out will to some degree harmonize with the theories of the classical orators. But that fact will have no bearing on its validity; it will be only another instance of the fact above pointed out, that their agreement with us will show that they were right *because* they agree with science, with the science of today.

It might be possible to point out many things which are of purely modern development. The correction of speech defects (although we learn that Demosthenes corrected a bad voice by the expedient of putting pebbles in his mouth; we could not recommend that treatment in many cases); the theories and practises of oral reading; speech measurements; teaching of speech to the deaf:

phonetics; interpretation; teaching speech to foreigners; usage of the English language (with which we have to deal); public school reading—all these have their place in the modern complete speech curriculum; yet for none of them can we get anything from the ancients which will be of value.

IV

In the foregoing there has been no thought of minimizing the real worth of classical speech. But the recent deluge of writings tending to indicate that all that we have or can hope ever to have comes from antiquity needs damming up. We are in the midst of a revival of speech; rather let it be said that we are just coming to realize for the first time in history that speech can be made the subject of a science. It is a good thing to take stock of our present equipment, but let us not neglect the fact that in the study of speech *as a science* we are pioneers. Instead of continually looking backward and bewailing the decadence of past splendors, we need to be looking forward and anticipating future achievements which will do more toward raising the general levels of speech than the ancient orators ever could do.

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SPEECH CORRECTION IN WISCONSIN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

PAULINE B. CAMP
Madison, Wisconsin

WITHIN the past fifteen years, our public school systems have become more and more intelligent in caring for handicapped children. Classes have been organized to meet the educational needs of the deaf, the blind, the crippled, and the mentally defective. All over the country an attempt is being made to give these children, unequally born, equal opportunity with the more

fortunate to receive the training which will best fit them for life, and to receive this training not in an institution, shut off from all home and community interests, but in our public schools.

The most recent specialized field to be developed in public schools is that of the correction of speech disorders. Modern educators, having taken over this type of work, are bringing to the solving of the problem their knowledge of the psychology of the child, both normal and abnormal, their knowledge of the demands made upon him by society and his emotional reactions to these demands.

Few people realize how necessary this movement is; what a great number of children will benefit by it. In the school year 1921-22, speech surveys were made in several Wisconsin cities and it was found that from five to seven per cent of all school children were afflicted with some type of speech disorder, and by "speech disorder" we do not mean foreign accent. We could run the percentage up materially if we included this type of speech defect. We mean an abnormality of speech, a pathological state, an inability on the part of the individual to build up certain sounds or to control the speech mechanism.

Up to a comparatively recent date, all speech correction work in Wisconsin was done in schools for the deaf. There were many disadvantages in this arrangement. In the first place, it placed too great a burden on the teacher of the deaf and deprived the deaf children of time which rightfully belonged to them, and, secondly, it is not fair to the children suffering with speech disorders to take them out of classes with normal children and place them with the deaf, where the whole classroom situation is abnormal for hearing children.

Under the old plan, too, only a small group of children were given an opportunity to have their speech corrected. Expense to the state for teaching the few who could be placed in schools for the deaf was equal to the cost of instruction of all those in public schools who needed such training. In 1921-1922 there were ninety speech cases in schools for the deaf. Their training cost the state about $25,000. As compared with this, under the plan of having special speech teachers, working in the public school system, going from school to school and giving training to all children who needed it, in Madison, last year, the cost of training for two hun-

dred twelve children was $2,200,—and with better results.

But the strongest argument in favor of these children in classes with normal children is that the very nature of the illness itself suggests this treatment. Educators and psychologists are agreed that a large percentage of speech disorders are functional, that is, mental disorders. Since the term "mental disorders" is often misinterpreted, many people thinking it means mental deficiency, that there may be no misunderstanding of its use here, we give Dr. Macfie Campbell's definition: "Mental disorders are disorders of human adjustments, of mal-adaptations, of unhygienic compromises, immature or distorted ways of meeting the complex situations of life. . . ." "Mental disorders are not necessarily disorders whose symptoms are mental but whose roots are mental, that is, whose roots cannot be understood without studying the patient in his complete human relations." The symptom may be somatic, that is, it may be a headache, a paralysis, a tic, an apparent deafness or blindness, or a *speech defect*, but its cause lies in the difficulty the individual has in adjusting to the complex situations of life.

The cause of the child's speech disorder, in many cases, being his inability to meet situations which daily confront him with a normal output of energy and with emotional balance, we are not making progress towards the solution of his difficulties by removing him from a normal environment. The problem suggests keeping such children in public school classes, among children, the majority of whom show normal emotional reactions, and readjusting the personality of these emotionally unstable children so that they can meet the complicated affairs of school life without too much conflict. And furthermore, the well-trained teacher of speech correction will not only use her influence to keep the school environment normal, but will study the child in his "complete human relations," making suggestions to the parents if the home situation is wrong, changing the attitude of the child toward home conditions, if the defect lies in the personality of the child. She will also see that he has every physical care; for the difficulty can be neither all mental and emotional, nor all physical. The child is a biological unit and must be treated as such.

As anyone can readily see, this program is a difficult one and

requires a very special kind of training. It requires, also, that the teacher be of the type who will keep on growing professionally.

Beginning September, 1922, the speech work in all Wisconsin cities has been entirely separated from the day schools for the deaf. A number of teachers who have been trained in mental hygiene and who have knowledge of, and have had clinical experience with, nervous disorders, who have also been trained in corrective methods in the mechanics of speech, have been placed in public school systems and are treating all serious cases of speech defect. They do not, as a rule, work with the children who have a foreign accent, since, as explained above, this is not a speech disorder and can be corrected by the grade teacher. Their problem deals with children who stutter or who show some other serious defect in articulation. There are at present about 1,900 children under treatment in the various cities.

EDITORIAL

ADVERTISING THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL

THE wider the circulation of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL, the better service it can render. Everyone interested in adding new subscribers can join in an enterprise now conducted by some which is calculated to advertise the JOURNAL where advertising can do most good. This is it. The business manager provides blank cards describing the JOURNAL, stating the terms of subscription, and presenting the well-known dotted line for name and address. He will furnish these gladly to anyone wanting them. All of us receive mail continually from teachers and school officers seeking light on debate questions, contests, declamations, plays, where to get teachers, and what-not. If when you reply to these letters, you will

slip in one of the manager's cards—you see the conclusion. Send for a packet and help both the subscription list and the quality of the JOURNAL.

THE COACH VERSUS THE PROFESSOR

THIS is the time of year for moving, shifts in position and location occupying the minds of many, and from reports of various kinds, the normal movement of teachers from place to place is under way. To all of us this means something; to those moving it is of central interest; also to those sponsoring the moves it means not a little. Every letter written to commend a candidate shows what we as a profession think of ourselves. Wendell Phillips says, "The honors we grant mark how high we stand"; the recommendations we write show what we think of our own work and ideals.

This discussion is provoked by inquiries going the rounds asking for nominations as successors to men resigning and going away. Heads of departments receiving inquiries could reveal an illuminating picture, first of what college and university presidents think of speech education, and then of what they themselves think of it and of their colleagues. Two kinds of inquiries are current; first, Can you nominate a man to teach public speaking, debating, interpretation, dramatics—speech generally? Second, Can you nominate a man who will win contests for us? These statements are bald expressions of the more elaborate verbiage of good letter-writing; but each is a fair digest of its kind. Usually both are asked, but usually also it takes no critic of hidden meanings to discover which is preferred.

Here are some concrete cases of what has happened in one narrow geographical area. An important college decides to expand its work in public speaking; it offers an attractive salary and seeks a strong man. The choice comes down to two applicants; one avowedly interested in building up a department of broad speech education and frankly indifferent to debate and contest victories; the other so thoroughly committed to the winning of contests that the building up of a broad discipline is humanly impossible if his past record in victories is to be maintained. The college chooses the man with the record of victories.

In the second case the president writes, asking for nominations

of a successor to a departing teacher who has a remarkable record of victories; the president is careful to make these known. He asks for a man who can continue the record. His letter makes no mention of the department or of courses to be taught or of the need of teaching speech to the whole college. The assumption is more than strong that he wants a coach, a winner of sporting events, a man to furnish advertising points of a nature not genuinely academic or scholastic.

The third case is worse yet. A young man has been coaching —and presumably teaching—at one of the best of America's colleges; the college itself acknowledges this. This year he came up for reappointment. He has not had the success in contests enjoyed by some of his predecessors and by his opponents. He is frankly told that he is not to be reappointed because he has not brought enough debate and oratorical victories to the college—this by a committee of the faculty on appointments; not by the president alone. The college wants a coach first and a professor second, if at all.

Now this is food for reflection. How heavy a burden of contests can the profession stand? Which direction are we going? Can we keep contests at all and live, or are they an old man of the sea, who will eventually drag us under water? They are with us; much can be said in their favor; they are not to be wiped out with a gesture of fear or of disgust; they are a pretty real part of work in speech education. But the time is pretty close at hand when some sort of decision must be made whether the professor rules the coach or the coach masters the professor.

The disturbing element in the present evidence is the frankness of presidents and faculty committees. It would seem that they are by no means yet "sold on" speech education for the whole college. What is worse, the man on the grounds who ought to be interesting them in speech education, finds his hands tied and his tongue stopped; he is either too much bedevilled into giving every last ounce of his time and strength for victories, or by his voluntary devotion to contests he stands committeed to the superiority of sporting events over academic discipline.

Contest victories and the problems they bring are one of the issues that the profession must face with a frankness and sincerity demanded by few other questions of the present day.

THE FORUM

FINANCING FORENSICS

J. C. HAZZARD
Macalester College
St. Paul, Minnesota

IN making this investigation of the methods of financing forensics no effort was made to gather data from all colleges, but the field was limited to that group of colleges where conditions as to size of student body and other circumstances were similar to the conditions here at Macalester College; hence, no effort was made to investigate the methods prevailing at the state universities and the other large universities such as Harvard, Princeton, Yale, or Chicago, where conditions are entirely different. Representative colleges in different parts of the country were selected, every state, except a few southern states, being represented by at least one college. The denominational colleges naturally predominated, although others were included.

A study of the data gathered shows that there is no uniform method of financing this department of college education. Six colleges report that the college authorities appropriate sufficient funds from the general budget of the college each year. Two still raise funds by charging admission to all forensic contests. One depends upon voluntary subscriptions from the student body each year. One gives plays to finance the forensic activities of the college, and one gets what it can from student fees, while the college makes up the remainder from the college budget. By far the larger number have student fees, a part of which goes to support forensics, athletics, and other student activities.

Of those colleges that depend upon student fees the forensic fee for each student varies from twenty cents a year to three dollars

a year. Twelve are one dollar or over, ten are fifty cents or over but less than one dollar, one is twenty cents, and one is forty-eight cents.

The following table gives a comparison of the forensic fees and the athletic fees:

Forsenic Fees	Athletic Fees	Forsenic Fees	Athletic Fees
$0.20	$ 4.50	$0.625	$ 2.75
2.00	10.00	1.50	4.50
.50	9.50	2.00	6.00
.50	12.00	.50	10.00
.90	6.00	1.00	10.00
1.00	4.00	*.75	5.00
.50	5.00	1.00	10.00
1.35	7.10	.80	6.50
1.00	7.00	1.30	6.50
3.00	7.20	.50	6.50
1.30	Self supporting	.48	10.80
1.75	3.15	.50	10.00

*College appropriates $400 additional.

From a study of this table one is almost forced to conclude that in the estimate of the students forensics are of but slight importance in comparison with the main attraction of college life, viz., athletics. Presumably these fees were determined by the students themselves and therefore reflect their valuation of the importance of the two activities.

The methods of handling the forensic funds vary widely. In many of the colleges the college treasurer pays out the funds on requisition of the forensic board or of the professor of public speaking. A few colleges pay the full amount of the fund to the treasurer of the forensic board at the beginning of each semester or term. One college pays the full amount to the professor of public speaking, who then issues his personal checks for expenses and renders an itemized statement to the college treasurer. Only two colleges bond the treasurer of the forensic board, although in six colleges he has entire charge of the forensic funds.

In most cases where the funds are handled by students the college treasurer or a committee of the faculty audits the accounts, one college reports that the forensic board audits its own treasurer's report, and several report that there is no method of auditing in use.

The majority of the colleges reporting do not apportion their forensic funds for oratorical, debate, or other forensic contests, prefering to use for each whatever is necessary as long as the money lasts. Of the few that do apportion the funds debate receives about 80% of the entire amount, a fair proportion, as it is the most expensive forensic activity.

The question, "Are your forensic funds sufficient or are you constantly facing a deficit?" brought out some interesting facts. Ten colleges reported that there was a constant deficit. Several reported that the expenses were made to conform to the amount allowed but that the work of the department was seriously handicapped, debates having to be refused owing to lack of funds. Of the colleges reporting sufficient funds, most gave the total amount as $500 or over. One college reports that the funds are "usually sufficient, this year $1,200," and one institution reports using $1,700 a year for forensics.

Eight of the colleges report that they have no forensic boards or similar organizations, the department of public speaking handling all matters pertaining to forensic contests. Of the colleges having forensic boards or equivalent student organizations, the faculty is represented by at least one member in all except six. Some of the boards seem to be too large for handling the work conveniently, consisting of all the students taking public speaking courses and the varsity and class debating teams. This is rather in the nature of a senate than a board.

Twenty-seven colleges report that they have chapters of national forensic fraternities, but of these only fourteen report that these fraternities are represented on the forensic boards. Probably these fraternities are represented unofficially but not as such. It would seem that in most colleges the chapter of the forensic fraternity should be as much entitled to a representative on the board as is a literary society, or should constitute the board, as it does in five colleges.

The last question was, "Please give any suggestions for improving forensic finances you may care to make." Of the few who offered suggestions, the following are interesting:

"If forensic contests are of any value, and we believe they are, they should be financed by a special appropriation in the

college budget. The professor of public speaking should have full charge and be responsible only to the college treasurer for the expenditure of finances and to the college president for the conduct of his department. Then students should be given adequate credit for work done in the department."

"We believe forensics in all forms are important enough in education to be supported as any other educational activity in a dignified way, and our trustees agree with us. We have a budget that covers all expenses and we use what we need of it as we please." (Happy man; he never tried to finance five debates, two oratorical contests, and an interstate contest in extemporaneous speaking on $250.00!)

"It would seem that a definite yearly appropriation out of the tuition fees would be the most seemly and convenient way of providing support for forensics."

"I believe there should be a greater percentage of our student funds given to debate activities and less to athletics."

"The average small college ought to have at least $500 for forensics. . . . Financing of all forensic activities should be by means of a fixed fee payable with tuition and not remissible in case of scholarship holding."

Conclusions. From a study of the answers received the following conclusions may be drawn: That the methods of financing forensics and also the methods of managing them must vary on account of local conditions. The average small college cannot carry on forensic activities as they should be on less than $500 a year. Probably the best solution of the difficulty in most colleges would be to take forensics out of the student activity class and treat them as a part of the work of the department of public speaking. In that case they should be financed in the same manner that other departments are financed, viz., by an annual appropriation in the college budget, and then holding the department of public speaking responsible for the conduct of the work. More interest should be aroused in forensics by making the debates and other contests more attractive and by giving the students taking part in them the same recognition that is given to students taking part in athletics.

The teachers of the Speech Improvement Classes of the Boston

Public Schools of the State of Massachusetts are quite solicitous for the choice of Boston as the next convention city of The National Association of Teachers of Speech. They are very much interested in the work that the members are carrying on in the various sections of the country, and need a replenishment of new enthusiasm and zeal for progressive extension in all the professionally accepted speech lines. They guarantee a most hearty welcome to New England, and, especially, to Boston, New England's center of culture and education.

Let's consider Boston's desire to receive us, in the plans for the next convention.

THERESA A. DACEY, Boston.

MEMBERS of the Association will be pleased to learn that arrangements are going forward in connection with the forthcoming convention to be held in the holidays at Cincinnati. Through the courtesy of the permanent secretary of the ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENCE, reduced rates will be obtained for members of the National Association of Teachers of Speech from every part of the country. Local arrangements for the Cincinnati convention are in the hands of Professor B. C. Van Wye, of the University of Cincinnati.

Steps have been made toward establishing a permanent, allied relationship with this scientific organization; and the chairman of the research committee, Professor H. A. Wichelns, of New York University, is in touch with Professor Liddell, of Purdue University, with a view to mutual suggestions and collaborations.

THE work of organizing the various committees is rapidly nearing completion. Because of its large numbers, the High School Committee organization has been somewhat delayed; but the services of about twenty members of the association living in as many different states, have been enlisted. We are trying to raise now funds with which to finance the work of a nation-wide investigation of speech work in secondary schools. Of the Research Committee, Prof. H. A. Wichelns, of New York University, is chairman; of the Membership Committee, Wilbur T. Kay, of West Virginia;

of the College Entrance Requirements Committee, J. Walter Reeves, Peddie Institute; of the High School Committee, Robert E. Williams, of DePauw University; and it is believed that Professor Smith, of Princeton Theological Seminary, will serve as chairman of the new Committee on Law and Theological Schools.

Professor Wichelns, of the Research Committee, completed his organization some weeks ago and already has issued a very comprehensive and most promising questionnaire. It is desired that the membership of the Association generally communicate frankly and freely suggestions to the chairmen of these committees. It is believed that with the active coöperation of all concerned we shall be able to make the next convention noteworthy because of work actually accomplished and further work planned.

H. B. Gough.

ARRANGEMENTS FOR THE 1923 CONVENTION

At the request of President Gough, I have made arrangements with Manager Hawke, of the New Hotel Gibson, to make that hotel our headquarters during the Convention, December 27, 28, and 29. And we are ahead of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, in this.

The Hotel Gibson is the largest and finest hotel in Cincinnati, having recently been enlarged so that it can accommodate 1,800 people. It has a dining room that seats 1,200, and a roof garden that will accommodate 1,500.

All sessions may be held in the hotel, beginning with the General Session, Thursday morning, and I have arranged for three or four smaller rooms for sections Thursday afternoon and all day Friday—more rooms if we wish—and a General Session, Saturday morning.

President Hicks, of University of Cincinnati, has consented to address the opening session. We will arrange for a drive about the city and beautiful suburbs, the parks, and along the Ohio, visit the Rookwood Potteries, etc.

There are several first-class theaters, and picture houses without number. And the Gibson House is in the very heart of things, with an entrance now upon Fountain Square.

The Gibson rates are as follows:

SINGLE ROOMS

Shower—$2.50, $2.75, $3.00, $3.25, and $3.50.

Tub—$3.00, $3.25, $3.50, and $4.00.

Combination tub and shower—$3.50, $4.00, $5.00, $6.00, $7.00, and $8.00.

DOUBLE (TWO PERSONS)

Shower—$4.00 $4.25, $4.50, and $5.00.

Tub—$5.00, $6.00, $7.00.

Combination tub and shower—$5.50, $7.00, $7.50, $8.00, $9.00, and $10.00.

Twin beds—$5.00 to $10.00.

There are not a great number of the $2.50 single rooms, but a large number of the $2.75, etc.

Early engagement of course is important to secure the minimum rooms, and in view of the fact that some 3,000 attended the A. A. A. S. convention in Boston, early engagements of *any* of the rooms are desirable.

The Sinton Hotel is large and almost as attractive. Then there are a number of others, such as the Havlin (headquarters of the Cincinnati Auto Club), The Hotel Emery, Hotel Newlands, The Grand, across the street from Union Station. The rates in most cases will not be much less, but I will get their rates later.

B. C. VAN WYE,
Chairman, Local Committee on Arrangements.

THE INTERSTATE ORATORICAL CONTEST

The following summary of judges' grades offers an interesting study in variations of judgment. Four of the six speakers get either a first and a fifth or a second and a sixth; two get both first and sixth. The judges were picked supposedly for expertness. The variations are about as wide as possible; what is the answer? One of two; maybe both: (1) Expertness is a very relative matter; (2) in a contest that represents the winners of fourteen state contests the six speakers chosen to compete in the finals ought to be pretty well blanketed, of about equal calibre; for such a contest seven judges is none too many, and variations are to be expected. Which?

	Judge D		Judge W		Judge O		Judge S		Judge N		Judge L		Judge M		Total Rank	Total Grades	Final Rank
Platt, Kansas	75	6	85	6	70	6	90	5	80	6	85	5	92	5	39	...	6
Squires, No. Dakota.	80	5	94	1	85	3	82	6	82	5	82	6	98	2	28	...	5
Heemstra, Michigan .	94	3	90	3	80	4	93	2	95	2	91	2	95	4	20	...	3
Troop, Ohio	96	1	86	5	87	2	92	3	87	4	87	4	97	3	22	...	4
Gallagher, Indiana ..	95	2	93	2	90	1	91	4	90	3	93	1	90	6	19	642	1
Johnsrud, Minnesota.	90	4	88	4	72	5	94	1	98	1	89	3	99	1	19	630	2

NEW BOOKS

A Handbook of Public Speaking. JOHN DOLMAN, JR. Harcourt, Brace & Co., New York. 1922. Pp. ix, 165.

The purpose of this excellent handbook, as described in its preface, is "to furnish the student of public speaking with a concise statement of the principles he ought to know, together with a few hints as to method" and to restate "in convenient form . . . a few fundamental truths most of which were old when Aristotle and his contemporaries stated them." In a too brief hundred and fifty pages the author has so effectively set forth some of the fundamental standards and principles of public speaking that every teacher and student could read this little book with profit. It would be a happy event if the *Handbook* should have the merited good fortune to replace some of the charlatanic "short-cuts" too often made the norm of "clubs" and extra-academic courses in public speaking. Academic teachers who do not find it sufficiently exhaustive for their own classes—as many surely could not—will be glad to have so sound and readable an approach to their subject available for recommendation to the general reader.

The writer disclaims originality, but his treatment of a number of problems is refreshingly individual. The discussions of public speaking as a useful art, of the purposes of the speaker, of "motivation"; of "concreteness and the five senses"; of "distraction," and of "drift" are especially interesting. The chapter on "Voice" is practical, and the sample exercises for vocalization, flexibility, enunciation, and pronunciation are well selected for the purposes of such courses as the book is intended to serve. But one wonders whether breathing is adequately described as being "done with the lungs," and whether a number of the breathing exercises, however safe in practice, are in accord with the best *theory*. The *best* teachers of voice may recommend "abdominal breathing," but

the term seems to need definition if this is implied advice to the student.

Professor Dolman emphasizes the primary importance of something to say, the necessity of developing the impulse to say it, a direct, reciprocal, sincere mental relationship with the audience, and the need of sharpening the speaker's "tools"—words, tones, and actions. Rhetorical presentation and the plan of the speech are treated inferentially in connection with other problems. (The plan of the speech would seem to deserve a chapter.) While the "tools are not fundamental," the student "must strive persistently to perfect his voice, gestures, and command of language."

Especially interesting are the bibliographical suggestions of readings for the general education of the speaker, and the books, essays, plays, novels, and poems recommended as useful in arousing discussion, in furnishing thought-material, or in both. Professor Dolman assumes that the teacher of public speaking must not be uninterested in and should attempt to interest students in reading which shall provoke the type of thinking and stimulate the growth of ideas characteristic of public discussion,—a development "without which a man has little right to claim the leadership of thought implied in public speaking."

This *Handbook* is admirable in its soundness of approach, its point of view, its standards, its outlined suggestions for further work by teacher and pupil. With admiration for so much in so little, one can only regret that its topics are not more comprehensively developed.

A. M. D., Ithaca, New York

Political Christianity. A. MAUDE ROYDEN. Putnam, New York. 1923.

Those of us who find pleasure in reading speeches even after hearing them all day long will like this little volume of Guildhouse addresses by England's well-known woman preacher. Even those who scorn sermons—and no student of speech construction may safely do so—will find these nine short preachments notably alive, notably direct, notably concrete.

The volume begins with a defense of political discussions on a Christian pulpit, and proceeds to comments on Russia, Ireland, the Washington Conference, the care of the war-stricken insane,

the peace-treaty and unemployment. Of these, the first and the last-named are perhaps the strongest. If the first is better built, the other exhibits more rhetorical effectiveness in the handling of detail.

These short speeches furnish useful examples both of rhetorical structure and of details of style; I often think that our students would be more frequently directed to models of composition, if current addresses, that need little or no historical interpretation, were available. Modern speeches, unlike modern short stories, have yet to find their O'Brien.

H. A. WICHELNS, *New York University.*

The New Spirit in English Verse. E. G. PERTWEE. Dutton, New York. 1922. 125 pp. $1.50.

This "anthology for readers and reciters" by the examiner in elocution of the Associated Board of the Royal (English) Academy of Music (etc.) is a slim volume published first in London by Routledge. One may question the need of such a selection, when the *Oxford Book of Georgean Verse* supplies a more generous group of modern selections. "Readers and reciters," let us hope, have industry and interest sufficient to supplement the larger collection by clippings of their own. Students, indubitably, need more solid food than this inoffensive, conventional, almost prosaic little book. The well-known names are ill represented; the numerous unknown poets deserve their obscurity. It would not, I think, be hard to select an equal number of American verses bolder in conception, more various in mood and method, more truly of the stuff of poetry and much more readable. There are no surprises in this volume, except for those who have been often told that even the minimal English poets "have a good ear."

H. A. WICHELNS, *New York University.*

Crandall, I. B., and MacKenzie, G. Analysis of the Energy Distribution in Speech. *The Bell System Technical Journal,* Volume I, Number 1, July, 1922. Pages 116-128.

This article will be of interest to those who understand the principles involved in the telephone. It is a study of the rate of energy output in speech for the normally modulated voice. This was found to be about 125 ergs per second.

G. N. M., Iowa City.

Fletcher, Harvey. The Nature of Speech and Its Interpretation. *The Bell System Technical Journal*, Volume I, Number 1, July, 1922. Pages 129-144.

This is a splendid article dealing with the interpretation of speech sounds through the telephone. A method of checking up on articulation is set forth that would be of interest to any one working in the field of distinct utterance. The usual phonetic description of sounds is presented early in the article, but to appreciate the latter discussion one should be familiar with the principles of a telephone system. The article is much worth while for one in the field of phonology.

G. N. M., Iowa City.

A Plea for Spoken English in the Secondary Schools, by Professor Willard Thorp. Published in the March number of the *Educational Review*. Doubleday, Page & Company, Garden City, New York.

Professor Willard Thorp, of the English Department of Smith College, gives evidence in his article that he not only recognizes improved speech as a prime necessity for our intellectual, artistic, and national development, but also understands many of the conditions in our secondary schools—what is being done in speech training, what is not done, and what ought to be done.

He is close to the situation when he says, "Schools exist for the purpose of fitting boys and girls to cope more vigorously with the vicissitudes of life. We advance in the world chiefly by the appearance we make before people. After our faces and our persons have been seen, our voices are heard, and then, too often, the terrible revelation is made. Everything is evidenced by it, environmental training, schooling, even the locality from which the speaker hails. Fortunately, there is nothing about us that is so plastic and so alterable, especially in youth, when the mind is capable of receiving new ideas and acting upon them."

And he voices the experience of many in saying, "The slight attention given our own language and literature in the schools amounts to an open scandal. The writer went through the mill not so long ago and remembers that less than three periods per week were thought sufficient to open the glories of English literature, the intricacies of its grammar, the possibilities of its composition

while we were left to our own devices in the speaking of it. Many other subjects claimed twice the time—a strange juggling of the true proportions of things."

He believes that the first real problem to be solved is the question of teachers, and declares: "The day is definitely passed when any one may suppose that spoken English can be taught by everyone who can read and write English." In some cities and states the first problem is, undoubtedly, to get superintendents, boards of education, and municipal governments to realize the place and scope of speech training in modern education. There are altogether too many of them who still consider any teacher of English capable of teaching speech training, and there looms the first problem in some of our schools and systems of schools.

Professor Thorp contends in closing that, "Those of us who are watching the matter closely for signs of the times, believe that an increase in this movement for better speech is inevitable."

PERIODICALS

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL PUBLICATIONS

EDITED BY GILES WILKESON GRAY

University of Illinois

Smith, Frank: Bilingualism and Mental Development; *British Journal of Psychology, Vol. XIII, Part 3, p. 271.* January, 1923.

The importance of language and speech is now recognized by all educators in the process of mental development. "No educationist now questions the supreme claim of the vernacular to the first place in the curriculum." The mother tongue is "so bound up with the child's personal life, so overlaid and intensified by emotional currents, and so closely wedded to his intimate and commonplace experiences" that no second language can possibly become so much a part of his life.

There has been much controversy as to whether early

bilingualism is an advantage or a hindrance. It has been maintained by some writers as a matter of course that those who had two languages with which to express themselves were given thereby a superiority over those who had only one; while others have held the opposing view. In a series of experiments covering a period of three years in different parts of Wales, Mr. Smith has made an effort to determine the facts in the case, and the conclusions at which he arrived are embodied in this article. There was some difficulty in finding groups of children of the two classes namely, those who used only one language, the monoglots, and those using two, the bilinguals. But after some search this was overcome, and the experiments were carried on with these two groups, in five different schools of Wales.

Without going into the details of the experiment, it will be sufficient merely to point out the conclusions, and to indicate the significance of those findings.

1. Monoglot children between the ages of eight and eleven make better progress than bilingual children in the power of expression, their choice of vocabulary, and in the accuracy of thought. During the time covered by the research, the monoglots made twice as much progress than did the bilinguals, the ratio, according to the system of grading used, being 311 to 138, or more than double.

2. This superiority is revealed more consistently in some tests than in others, but the average in all tests, and in all schools, gives the monoglots the advantage.

3. The correlation coëfficient gives the free composition test and the "mutilated passage" test more reliability than the word-building and the analogy tests. In the former the coëfficient is .8, while in the last two it is barely above .6.

The educational significance of this research is tremendous, especially to our system of schools in America. There are thousands of children being educated under the bilingual handicap, with the result that their advance is not all that it ought to be. It is more than a problem of Americanization that the English language should be used in all the schools where English is the tongue of the community. Mrs. Scripture has pointed out the fact that the conflict of tongues in New York is the direct cause of a large percentage of the stuttering which is found there. If still further research supports the findings of Mr. Smith, and of Mr. Saer, who

conducted a similar investigation in the schools of Wales, then one of the problems of American educators is clear: to see that the pupils of the schools are not made to suffer under the handicap of bilingualism. The QUARTERLY would be glad to know if any similar research has been conducted in America, and what the results have shown. With the polyglot population of the large cities there ought to be ample opportunity for such work; and there can be no doubt as to the value of scientific endeavor along this line.

Drummond, A. M.: Plays for the Country Theatre; Cornell University Extension Bulletin, New York State College of Agriculture, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York.

Professor Drummond has given us a very valuable pamphlet in this little publication. Directors of plays, especially in the outlying districts, where conditions are not always the most favorable for the production of dramatic work, will welcome any additional suggestions for plays and entertainments which are worthy of the best effort. The lists, which are exceptionally well classified, include nothing which is of questionable value, either from the literary or the dramatic viewpoint. Among the different divisions may be mentioned the following:

Collections of plays,
Books of plays, operettas, pageants, and festivals, for children,
Elementary manuals helpful in production,
Periodicals,
Plays (under several headings),
Publishers of and agents for plays.

Prepared as it is especially for the country theatre, we believe that this pamphlet will supply a long-felt need among those who have had to struggle with the problem of selecting a play or entertainment under such conditions.

Buswell, Guy Thomas: Fundamental Reading Habits: A Study of Their Development. *Supplementary Educational Monographs,* University of Chicago Press. 1922.

From the laboratory of the University of Chicago the colleagues of Professor Shorey issue an occasional "pseudo- scientific" work which promises to be of rather more than passing

value to the educational world. This happens to be one of them.

So far as reading is concerned one purpose of the schools is to convert the habits of immaturity into those of maturity. While obviously there is a wide interval between these two stages it is the place of the school to guide the transition from one to the other. The present monograph is an attempt to show the characteristics of both maturity and immaturity in reading, and to suggest some methods of advancing from the one to the other. Within the period of transition certain things must be acquired: the ability to pronounce words, the ability to recognize the meanings of words, and the ability to interpret sentences and paragraphs. "Maturity in interpreting words in their relations involves the ability to fuse a number of words, in the particular order in which they occur, into a single thought whole.

There are various methods of determining the stage of advancement which the pupil has reached, the one here employed being the photographic record of eye-movements. While this, viewed superficially, is a mere mechanical matter, in reality the "significance of eye-movements goes far beyond the mechanics of reading." They give a direct indication of the nature of the reading itself. Habitual peculiarities of the movements of the eyes, which are not easily subject to conscious control, furnish a "symptom of the character of his thought processes." Confusion in thought, in reading, is accompanied by a corresponding confusion in eye-movements. If, then, these can in some way be recorded, we shall have a fairly complete indication of the reading habits of the individual, so far as certain aspects are concerned.

The technique of getting the record is interesting. It consisted, briefly, of "photographing a beam of light, generated from a high-power nitrogen bulb, reflected first to the cornea of the eye from silvered glass mirrors, and then from the cornea through a camera lens to the moving kinetoscope film. The direction of the pencil of light is changed with each movement of the eye. . . . An electrically-driven tuning fork, with a vibration rate of twenty-five per second, is mounted in the path of the beam of light in such a manner that the pencil of light is intercepted at each vibration. These vibrations produce on the film a line of dots rather than a solid line, each dot representing

exactly one-twenty-fifth of a second. Since the film moves continuously in a vertical plane, the record shows a vertical line of dots while the eye is fixated in a single position, and a short horizontal line when the eye is in motion in a horizontal or oblique position. . . The method makes possible an accurate record showing the position and duration of each fixation of the eye while the subject reads.

The three phases which were investigated as the basis of this monograph are, first, the eye span, or recognition unit; second, the rate of fixation; and third, the number of regressive movements. Immaturity of reading consists of a short, recognition unit, a slow rate of fixation, or a slow recognition, and a considerable number of regressive movements. All varying degrees and possible combinations of different stages in the three phases may be found in a given group of pupils, but the aim of the school in working toward maturity in reading is to develop a broad recognition unit, a rapid rate of recognition, and a minimum of backward movements. Copious graphs and actual reproductions of the records made in the tests are included, so that the monograph is abundantly illustrated, and the text can easily be followed.

In the advance from the habits of immaturity to those of maturity two methods are used. The one emphasizes the recognition of words as the first step, building from that up to the sentence, and perhaps to larger units. The other method emphasizes from the beginning the largest possible groups, the ability to recognize words coming as an analysis of the whole. Between these two methods are various gradations, but in all of them the aim is the same: to develop a certain attitude toward reading, to increase the recognition unit, to speed up the rate of recognition, and to decrease the number of regressive movements. Each method has its advantages as well as its dangers, which are discussed at more length than we shall attempt here. Suggestions are also given for the specific training in these various phases.

Our principal criticism of the work as a whole is the tacit assumption that the ultimate goal of all reading instruction is

ability—one might almost say "agility"—in silent reading. In the oral tests all the subjects were selected from Grades II to VI, with the result that "as the reader develops in span of recognition, rate of recognition, and regularity of procedure along the printed lines, he also becomes more mature in the elements which are measured by the oral test, such as repetitions, omissions, substitutions, insertions, and mispronunciations" (p. 49). Up through these grades ability in oral and silent reading develops very nearly together, but at this point there is a diminution in emphasis in oral reading, with the result that quite naturally the other makes a more rapid advance. But there is evidence here to show that in at least one of the three phases oral reading has a decidedly beneficial effect, namely in the decreasing of the number of regressive movements. On the other hand, there is no evidence showing that the other phases are inhibited by ability in oral reading. There is a difference in the two types, in that whereas in silent reading all the effort is directed toward the getting of meaning, with the oral there is the additional problem of giving that meaning to others. The difficulty lies in the failure to get the proper attitude. It seems that, with proper methods of teaching oral reading, emphasizing the rapid getting of the meaning, and then using the rest of the time that the speech must of necessity take, to give that meaning, all three of these phases could be developed, not only in the grades, but up through the high school.

Another value of oral reading which is neglected in this monograph, is the proper use of the voice as a distinct aid in the getting of the meanings. All reading, be it oral or silent, goes back for its foundation to speech; it is our contention that there is in the schools a tendency to drop this element out too soon. And reading the monograph by Professor Buswell has not given any evidence that the contrary is true. The trouble with the failure of oral reading to keep pace with silent reading is not inherent in the former type, but in the methods with which it is taught.

However, Professor Buswell has done a very good piece of work here, whether we agree with all the assumptions or not. Every teacher of reading of either type can get a great deal of

valuable aid from its pages; we especially recommend it for teachers of interpretation. Although they may not want to accept all its implications, at the same time they will find that with minor reservations the whole treatment of fundamental reading habits can be accepted as a scholarly bit of research.

Other articles of interest to teachers of speech are given below. The assistant editor in charge of this department is of the opinion that many good things are appearing from time to time that do not come to his notice. He will be glad to have the readers of the QUARTERLY send in references to articles they have seen, whether the articles bear directly or indirectly on the work of our field.

Barker, James L.: Formation of Voiceless Consonants in French and English. *Modern Philology*, Vol. XX, No. 2, p. 173. 1922.

Bartlett, F. C.: The Function of Images. *British Journal of Psychology*, Vol. XI, Part 2, p. 320. January, 1921.

Blanton, Smiley: Treatment of Stutterers. *Oralism and Auralism*, Vol. II, No. 1, p. 1. January, 1923.

Colvin, Stephen S., and Allen, Richard D.: Mental Tests and Linguistic Ability. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol. XIV, No. 1, p. 1. January, 1923.

Gregory, Joshua: Visual Images, Words, and Dreams. *Mind*, Vol. XXXI, No. 123, p. 320. July, 1922.

Head, Henry: Disorders of Symbolic Thinking and Expression. *British Journal of Psychology*, Vol. XI, Part 2, p. 179. January, 1921.

Is Thinking Merely the Action of Language Mechanism? A Symposium by

I. F. C. Bartlett and E. M. Smith.
II. Godfrey H. Thomson.
III. T. H. Pear.
IV. Arthur Robinson.
V. John B. Watson.

British Journal of Psychology, Vol. XI, Part 1, pp. 55-104. October, 1920.

Kantor, J.: An Analysis of Psychological Language Data. *Psychological Review*, Vol. 29, No. 4, pp. 267-309. July, 1922.

Malone, Kemp: Studies in English Phonology. *Modern Philology*, Vol. XX, No. 2, p. 189. November, 1922.

McGinnis, Mildred A.: Honesty of Speech in Speech Correction. *Oralism and Auralism,* Vol. II, No. 1, p. 13. January, 1923.

Murphy, Elmer: The Decline of Oratory. *Bookman,* Vol. LVII, No. 2, p. 129. April, 1923.

Scripture, E. W.: The Nature of Verse. *British Journal of Psychology,* Vol. XI, Part 2, p. 225. January, 1921.

Smith, Frank: Bilingualism and Mental Deevelopment. *British Journal of Psychology,* Vol. XIII, Part 3, p. 271. January, 1923. (Reviewed in this issue.)

Wheeler, Olive A.: An Analysis of Literary Appreciation. *British Journal of Psychology,* Vol. XIII, Part 3, p. 229. January, 1923.

Woody, Clifford: The Effectiveness of Oral vs. Silent Reading in the Initial Memorization of Poems. *Journal of Educational Psychology,* Vol. XIII, No. 8, p. 477. November, 1922.

Young, Stark: Acting. *Theatre Arts.* October, 1922.

NEWS AND NOTES

PUBLIC SPEAKING CONFERENCE OF THE OHIO STATE TEACHER'S ASSOCIATION

PROGRAM

FIRST DAY, MARCH 29TH

Paper: "What Contributions Should Public Speaking Make to the Great General Ends of Education?".....J. T. Marshman

Round Table discussions on the following questions:

1. What should be our first year course in Public Speaking?
2. Should coaching in debate and intercollegiate contests be eliminated or limited by conference rules? If so, why and how?
3. Should the English system of open-forum debating, with or without modifications, be adopted in our inter-collegiate debating? Why and how?

4. Should universities and colleges encourage and direct Public Speaking contests, either forensic, or extemporaneous, or declamation, or oratorical, in the high schools? If so, why and how?

Discussions led by Harold Ruopp, Miami; E. W. Miller, Ohio Wesleyan; Howard Woodward, Western Reserve; V. A. Ketcham, Ohio State; Wm. H. Cooper, Ohio University; and Leon McCarty, Muskingum.

SECOND DAY, MARCH 30TH

1. What action should be taken by teachers of Public Speaking in our conference, in relation to the state board of education requirement of teacher-training in Public Speaking?
2. Should intercollegiate oratorical contests, as at present conducted, be encouraged, modified, or eliminated?
3. Should every teacher of Public Speaking be trained in interpretative reading?
4. How far should the teacher of interpretation employ the method of imitation in his teaching of interpretation?
5. What stories, long or short, including novels, are best fitted for adaptation for public reading?

Discussion by A. R. Mead, Ohio Wesleyan; Harry Gough, De Pauw; W. J. Kay, West Virginia; Charles Fritz, Otterbein; D. G. Lean, Wooster; Miss Burford, Ohio Wesleyan; Bromley Smith, Heidelberg.

THIRD DAY, MARCH 31ST

1. What should be the approach and goal in the teaching of dramatics?
2. In the casting of a play, barring physical handicaps, should the temperament of the actor correspond to the temperament of the character represented?
3. How can we raise the artistic standard of high school and college plays?
4. Does our work suffer from indefiniteness and inaccuracy in aims, methods, and practices? How far may this be corrected without destroying the liberty and freedom necessary to art?
5. What can we do for better speaking, reading, and dramatics in grades and high schools?

6. What places should the following branches of Speech Education have in the college or high school curriculum?
   (a) Story-telling?
   (b) Phonetics?
   (c) Psychological and physiological aspects of speech defects?
   (d) Theatrical art?
   (e) Community and religious drama?
   (f) Play writing?
   (g) Play production?
   (h) Public address?
   (i) Pantomime?
7. How can we, as dramatic teachers, help improve conditions in the American theatre?

Speakers for this group: Harry Gough, W. J. Kay, R. C. Hunter (Ohio Wesleyan), Chas. Fritz, Miss Voigt (Ohio University), Miss Lloyd (Ohio Wesleyan), and Mrs. Leas (Ohio Wesleyan).

SMITH COLLEGE

SPEECH CORRECTION

In the fall of 1921 the Spoken English Department of Smith College started an experiment in speech improvement. By this plan voice and speech tests are given to all entering students, except those who elect courses in the department. Any one who fails to pass the test is given a condition which must be removed before she can graduate.

The department aims to formulate a test adapted to the speech difficulties of the selected group of students entering Smith as freshmen. The students are tested as to their ability to read and speak with a reasonable degree of correctness and effectiveness. The failures in the tests were attributable to combinations of defective tone production and ineffective speech, such as weakness, harshness, nasality, "throatiness," lisping, stuttering, exaggerated local peculiarities, etc.

The results for the year 1922-23 have just been announced. Of the 684 students who entered in 1922, 133 elected Spoken English. Tests in voice and speech were given to all others. Of these, 273 passed the test, and 278 failed; 43 passed conditionally because of some slight defect in speech or voice production.

Acting upon these tests the Spoken English Department re-

quires private conferences with those who passed the test conditionally. Of those who failed, 75, or 19%, are in clinic groups from which they may be released as soon as they are able to pass the test; 23 elected a course in Spoken English for the second semester. The others will elect the fundamental course next year.

In the fundamental course—a pre-requisite for all other courses—the students are taught to analyze their own speech; to listen scientifically to the speech of others; to base their corrections upon an understanding of the physiological basis of the production of speech sounds and their special value in connected speech; and to express in writing these sounds, using the symbols of the International Phonetic Association. There will be between twenty and thirty sections of this fundamental course next year.

Research Work

The members of the departmental staff are engaged in interesting experimental and research work, tending to develop a new technique of public speaking and group discussion, as well as to work toward a standard of American speech. Because of the unique entrance test, by means of which every student is reached, these investigations are based on an extraordinarily large number of cases, representing every section of the United States.

Additions to the Staff

A notable English woman, Miss Dorothie Pantling, is to be a member of the Department of Spoken English at Smith College next year. Miss Pantling is at present connected with the training college of Birmingham University, England. She has done work in speech improvement at the Royal Naval Academy and at Mr. Rippman's summer school for foreigners at the University of London. Included in her various other activities are two clinics for stutterers, which she conducts under the auspices of the public health bureau at London.

Another addition to the staff will be that of Miss Vera Sickles. Miss Sickles has studied in several professional schools and holds an A. B. degree from Teacher's College of Columbia University. She has taught in several experimental and preparatory schools and gives courses for teachers in the Columbia University Summer School.

These two additions will give Smith College a staff of 11 mem-

bers in the Department of Spoken English: one associate professor, seven assistant professors, and two instructors.

SPEECH CORRECTION IN BOSTON

The speech specialists of the Boston Public Schools have been duly organized as the Boston Round Table for Speech Improvement. Weekly meetings are held. Matters pertaining to the furtherance of the Better Speech movement are discussed. All cases of pronounced speech defects, tentatively discharged as corrected, and those undergoing treatment, are carefully followed and reported upon with the result that there are not more than ten cases unaccounted for since the organization of the special work of correction, eleven years ago. In view of the claims of the skeptical that major speech difficulties are well-nigh impossible of successful treatment, the Boston people are rather timid to press their great claims of success. However, the children corrected are progressing normally throughout the school system into the suburban, special technical schools and colleges.

Earnestly and systematically, Boston is working toward the elimination of pronounced speech defects from among all children attending its schools.

On April 1st of this term there were 1,058 pupils who were seriously handicapped by aggravated forms of stuttering, in attendance at the speech improvement classes of the Boston public schools. A large majority of these are well advanced in correction.

Boston sets a high standard of speech generally, and will continue to work to remove all obstacles which tend to lower this standard. The elimination of speech defects will be a strong contribution. To assure this a strict follow-up system is maintained, in order to urge complete correction and to prevent relapses.

Additional classes will be organized in the fall for the benefit of high school pupils so handicapped, who were precluded from attendance at the usual centers by reason of poor health, long distances and other potent hindrances. Skilled teachers for adult work are appointed already who will carry on the correction in the regular high school buildings, speedily and most effectively. Boston's plan is such as to interfere with the children's progression in their grade work as little as is consistent with successful results.

A minimum amount of special correction, under skilled teachers, is fixed at three hours a week. Properly equipped centers are used. There is an adequate—in fact, a generous—spirit pervading the school system to supply just the proper fittings and corps for this highly specialized work.

All medical cases are assigned for attention to the regular department of medical inspection under the direction of a highly trained physician, William H. Devine, M. D., and his subordinate nurses and physicians. The teachers of speech, therefore, are greatly helped in coöperation with this department. Their time is occupied intensively with absolute corrective measures, on the academic side, as experienced teachers specially trained and duly qualified for the special work of correction.

NEW COURSE AT WISCONSIN

During the Summer Session of 1923, Dr. Smiley Blanton will offer an interesting course in the Correction of Speech Disorders, for graduate students only. Discussion will center about the following topics:

1. Physical symptoms of stuttering and their meaning.
2. Psychological symptoms found in the stutterer.
3. Relation of nutrition to stuttering.
4. Relation of stuttering to obsessional ideas and fears, and compulsions in children.
5. Attention and stuttering—the use of the attention in the various "methods" used in the stuttering schools.
6. The mechanics of stuttering of the hysterical and obsessional types.
7. Epilepsy and stuttering.
8. The use of suggestion in the treatment of stuttering.
9. The relation of suggestion to imitation and sympathy.
10. Types of suggestion; affective, motor, verbal, etc.
11. Autosuggestion and induced suggestion.
12. Use of suggestion in the treatment of school children—group suggestion for class-room work.
13. Suggestion and persuasion in the treatment of stuttering.
14. Mental analysis in the treatment of stuttering.
15. Psychoanalysis in the treatment of stuttering.

SPEECH CORRECTION IN PENNSYLVANIA

During Schoolmen's Week at the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, April 12-14, two clinics for the defects of speech were held. One was in the Department of Psychology by Dr. E. B. Twitmyer. The other was under the auspices of the Special Education Round Table, P. S. E. A. Mrs. Helen Peppard Moore, Supervisor of Speech Work, Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction, demonstrated a number of cases of speech defects, recommending lines of treatment. Many of the cases had been brought to the clinic by the special speech teachers of Philadelphia.

Philadelphia now has twenty special teachers who devote their entire time to speech correction in the public schools. Mrs. Davis is in charge of this work, which is under special education, Dr. Gladys G. Ide being supervisor of all special education in Philadelphia.

The city of Reading, Pennsylvania, has at present four special teachers for speech correction.

DRAMA LEAGUE INSTITUTE

Teachers of play production and advanced students in this field are showing an increasing interest in the work of the Drama League Institute. The fourth annual session, beginning August 20th, will offer courses in Stagecraft, Pageantry, Costume Design, Puppets, Religious Drama, High School Drama, Country and Community Dancing and Voice. The teaching staff will include Irving Pichel, Linwood Taft, Dugald Walker, Theodore B. Hinckley, Mrs. A. Starr Best, Lester Luther, and Louise Van Voorhis Armstrong.

DRAMA LEAGUE CONVENTION

The thirteenth annual convention of the Drama League of America was held at Iowa City, Iowa, April 19, 20 and 21, as the guests of the Iowa City Center of the Drama League and the University Theatre of the University of Iowa at Iowa City.

PERSONALS

Dr. Sara M. Stinchfield, of Mount Holyoke College, will teach in the Summer Session of Pennsylvania State University, giving one course in Oral English and one in Corrective Speech, in addition to conducting a clinic.

Professor Earl E. Fleischman, of the University of Kentucky,

will be a member of the Louisiana State University Summer Session, giving courses in Shakespearean Interpretation, Declamation and Debating. Professor J. Q. Adams, head of the Department of Public Speaking at Louisiana, will confine his attention during the summer to courses in Story-Telling. During the latter half of the summer he will offer courses at the University of Texas.

Dr. Glenn N. Merry, of Iowa State University, will teach in the Summer Session of the University of Wisconsin, offering courses in Voice Science and Teacher's Problems.

Mr. Irving Pichel, Director of the Little Theatre at the University of California, Berkeley, California, will offer courses in Elementary and Advanced Dramatic Production at the University of Wisconsin this summer.

Mrs. Elizabeth P. Hunt, of Wellesley College, will offer courses in Interpretative Reading and Dramatic Expression at the University of Wisconsin this Summer Session.

Miss Pauline Camp, State Supervisor of Corrective Speech in Wisconsin, will teach a course in the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf at the University of Wisconsin Summer Session, in addition to assisting with the work of the Speech Clinic there.

Professor James M. O'Neill, Chairman of the Department of Speech of the University of Wisconsin, has been granted a two-years leave of absence. Professor O'Neill plans to spend the first of these two years near Boston in studying and writing, and the second in Europe. Professor Andrew T. Weaver will be acting chairman of the department during Professor O'Neill's absence.

Mr. Gordon R. Crecraft, formerly of the staff in Public Speaking at the University of Illinois, has been appointed to take charge of Public Speaking at Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn.

NEW ENGLAND

Professor Malvina M. Bennett, who has given twenty-six years of distinguished service as head of the department of Reading and Speaking at Wellesley College, retires this June.

Mrs. Elizabeth Parker Hunt, recently appointed chairman of the Department of Reading and Speaking at Wellesley College, will teach during the summer session at the University of Wisconsin.

A departure was made this year at Mount Holyoke College in the field of speech correction, speech tests being required of all freshmen, and corrective work given individually or in groups. The same plan will be in operation during the coming college year.

Professor Newell C. Maynard, of Tufts College, will give a course in Extempore Speaking and Oral Reading, at the summer session of Harvard University.

Professor I. L. Winter will give a course in Dramatic Interpretation at the summer session of Harvard University. He will be assisted by Mr. Edwin H. Morse, stage manager for Guthrie McClintic, Inc., New York.

Next September Wellesley College initiates the required course in the Reading and Speaking Department. The course is one hour per week and is required in the Sophomore year.

The Eastern Intercollegiate Debating League, organized last October, includes Yale, Cornell, Dartmouth, Columbia, Amherst, Williams, Wesleyan, and Brown. Harvard, Princeton, and Bates were also invited to become charter members.

The one-hour course in public speaking at the University of Maine has been made compulsory for freshmen in the College of Technology.

Bates College has organized a Maine State interscholastic debating League with fifty schools enrolled. Final debates were held at the College in April.

Miss Edith Moses has resigned from the Winsor School, Boston, to accept a position in the Reading and Speaking Department at Wellesley College.

The first-year course in public speaking at New Hampshire State College has for this year been required of all students in agriculture and industrial engineering, as well as all students majoring in English. Next year it will also be required of all students in engineering.

Professor F. A. Pottle, at the summer session of the New Hampshire State College, will give a teacher training course in debating, planned especially for the teachers in secondary schools who wish to direct the work of interscholastic debating. A statewide school league was this year organized under the direction of the College.

A conference made up of the chairmen of the Departments of